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Amos W. Butler.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

Charities and Correction

AT THE

Thirty-fourth Annual Session held in the City of Minneapolis, Minn., June 12th to 19th 1907

EDITED BY

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

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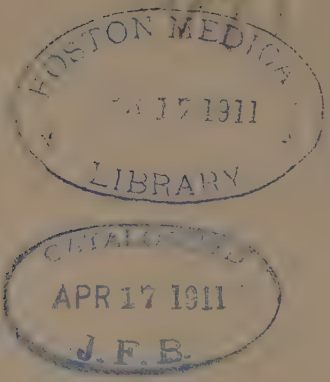

PREFACE.

There were many noticeable features of the thirty-fourth session of the Conference, perhaps the most striking being the degree to which consideration of the less immediate causes of pauperism and distress occupied the attention of the members. Questions of relief were hardly mooted, and, of the work of the Associated Charities, only that of the Friendly Visitors took up much time and space in the papers and debates. Equally noticeable was the amount of time devoted to the welfare of children. On the official program three general and five special sessions were allotted to them; but an eloquent address by a United States Senator, at the opening meeting, was concerned with Child Labor; the committee on Defectives and that on Statistics had each one or more papers devoted to Children's affairs; and the new Committee on the Promotion of Health in Home, School and Factory dealt chiefly with the second subject in its title.

The series of papers and discussions on the Care of the Insane forms an admirable summary of the subject, from the onset of the disease to the after care of the recovered patient. The Committee on Defectives gave much of its time to the Care of the Deaf and the Blind; the industrial aspect of work for the Blind having complete and intelligent presentation. The Committee on Statistics presented several papers of great value.

No paper in recent years has attracted so much attention as that on Vagrancy, presented by the Committee on State Supervision.

The attendance was good, although the number present from the Northwestern States, after very thorough advertising, was disappointing. It was made evident that the serious and difficult problems of pauperism and crime are yet hardly felt in that important section of the country.

The Thirty-fifth Conference will be held in Richmond, Virginia, in May, 1908, Mr. Thomas M Mulry, of New York, who is at the head, in the United States, of the great Society of St. Vincent de Paul. being President.

A. J.

Indianapolis, September 1, 1907.

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Proceedings of the 34th National Conference of Charities and Correction

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President's Address.

THE BURDEN OF FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

We bear the burdens of our civilization.

When the natural cause of man's eating was hunger, when he carried his wardrobe on his back, thrift and providence had no place. The active and strong survived; the weak and defective perished.

With our community lives, it is different. We encourage industry, economy, accumulation of property, growth of power, selfishness. We naturally think that all persons are normal; that each can take his part in the world and make his way and hold his place.

Our civilization, however, brings with it its burden of defectiveness and degeneracy. Our form of human society preserves and cares for the sickly, the weak, the dependent, the offender and the defective. We have dependents of various kinds, of varying degrees, who do not fit into the family life, the school or the social system. They are unable to bear the struggle of life or the weight of responsibility that is imposed upon citizens. Their burden then becomes ours.

It has been said, "Ye who are strong ought to bear the infirmities of the weak." In our civilization this has become the imperative: "Ye who are strong *must* bear the infirmities of the weak." We cannot escape this burden. We bear it willingly, but not always intelligently. We do not comprehend its extent; we do not know the underlying causes. Here and there an individual or an organization makes a more or less successful effort to study and interpret the problem, but as it is a universal problem and in some of its aspects threatens every home, all our people should be brought to a general knowledge of the subject. They should know something of its scope and its results, should, as far as possible, understand the causes and means of prevention.

Insanity, epilepsy and feeble-mindedness are the three neurotic diseases. Insanity is principally a disease of adult life. Epilepsy

manifests itself in eighty per cent. of the cases before the age of twenty years. Feeble-mindedness apparently exists chiefly from birth. The work with the last two classes is largely a work with the young. It is of the feeble-minded especially that I desire to speak. Ordinarily those included in the term "feeble-minded" range from children who are too dull to learn in the public schools to the most helpless idiot. Feeble-mindedness, imbecility and idiocy are simply varying degrees of arrested mental development, all being classed as feeble-mindedness. Persons who are really feeble-minded are sometimes adjudged insane and placed in a hospital for the insane. This is often an injustice to the insane, for whom the accommodations thus occupied should be reserved.

Few realize the misery and suffering, the vice and crime, or the great burden of taxation caused by our feeble-minded population. We do not know how many such unfortunates there are, but the census of 1890 reports 95,000 in the United States. An eminent authority estimates their number to be at least 150,000.

Everywhere, in town and city and country, the blight of feeble-mindedness is found. Even from the best homes, the most cultured families, come those whose minds have never unfolded, but have remained blighted and undeveloped buds. The debasing and demoralizing influence of an unrestrained feeble-minded woman in a community is beyond the comprehension of the uninformed. Its course can be traced by the physician, by the student, by every person who engages in any form of charitable activity. No two stories are alike, but all point with certainty to anti-social conditions.

Marriage ties are often lightly regarded by the feeble-minded, if indeed such bonds have been entered into. More notable than the expense of maintaining this class is the increasing population of imbeciles and defectives. Each of these, if he lives, is destined to spread blight and the germs of disease not only among his kind, but among families of intelligence. The results are increasing idiocy, epilepsy, physical infirmities, the stigmata of such defectiveness. These reproduce themselves in succeeding generations with greater power for evil and more far-reaching effects. Who can measure the depravity, misery and ultimate results? Who can count the cost?

In one feeble-minded family on our records, from a rural neighborhood, we have in direct and collateral membership 111 persons

belonging to five generations. In this number there are forty-nine lineal descendants. Practically all of them are so deficient mentally they cannot do the ordinary work of the public schools. An agent not long since visiting the home of a branch of this family, found there four generations in direct line.

Some of the children of families of this class enter the public schools. They make some progress for a time, but are unable to keep up with the other pupils or do the required work, and soon drop out of school, usually to the satisfaction of the other pupils and the relief of the teacher. Others roam the streets. The boys become the butt of the neighborhood; they are led into pranks, frequently into vices, and seem to possess a peculiar tendency to bad habits. The girls, many of them strong, well-appearing, with no one to teach them aright and without strength of mind to protect themselves against the temptations which surround them, too often early fall into immorality.

"While it is easily possible for parents of normal faculties, through dissipation, vice or disease, to produce feeble-minded offspring, there seems no method by which the tendency can be reversed and the degeneration thus easily accomplished, displaced by regeneration and restoration in succeeding generations."*

The following case was recently submitted to a well-known charity organization society for investigation and advice. The family is not dependent. The man and his wife have been the parents of thirteen children and the time is approaching for the birth of another child. Five of the children died in infancy, three were sent to the State institution for the feeble-minded (where one of them died), and five are at home. The father is industrious, earns good wages and is good to his family, but the mother, while of good parentage, is feeble-minded and wholly inefficient. The home of this family is indescribably dirty, and the children are uncontrolled except when the father is at home. One of the five children now with their parents is a feeble-minded girl fifteen years old. She runs loose in the neighborhood. Another girl is in school, but learns slowly; still another is thought to be feeble-minded. Of the two sons, the older, who has a bad disposition, is regularly employed for wages. The younger is a helpless idiot and epileptic.

In the records of the relief societies are preserved many histories of families brought to want through the drain and strain of sup-

*Bicknell, Indiana Board of Charities, 5th An. Report, p. 51.

porting one or more feeble-minded children or by reason of the mental defectiveness of the parents. At times comes to light the fact of an idiot child hidden—kept in the seclusion of an upper room or shut away in a garret—a veritable skeleton in the closet; often neglected and cruelly treated until the public, attracted by its calls, demands better care in a proper place.

A large number of these defectives are charges upon families already heavily burdened, who receive more or less aid from the poor officer. Often the home is pauperized. From a number of such cases reported by township overseers of the poor, the following is selected:

A— B— and his family have been charges upon the township for the past thirty-five years, and have been aided to the extent of about $100 annually. The man is feeble-minded and is far below the average physically. He has been twice married and has had twenty-one children, only eight of whom are living. Several of the thirteen children who died lived only a short time, and all were buried at the expense of the township. The mental condition of the children is below the average and some have been inmates of the county poor asylum. The man will be a public charge as long as he lives.

To one who visits the almshouses and orphans' homes the idiotic and feeble-minded are a striking feature. In every almshouse there are inmates of this class. In many their presence is emphasized by pitiable individuals who are almost uncontrollable, or by children in most cases the illegitimate offspring of parents, one or both of whom are feeble-minded. Approximately one-third of the poor asylum population in my own state is composed of such defectives. In 1904, according to the census, something more than one-fifth of the almshouse population of the entire county was reported as feeble-minded. These have practically all passed through the hands of the relief officer.

As is to be expected, in many of the orphans' homes a large number of the children come from feeble-minded parents. Some such, who show little or no defect, are placed in family homes; others are held to await developments; but a continual, urgent appeal is made for a place for the children who do not properly belong there. The visitor to the schools for the deaf and the blind will sometimes find children therein who are decidedly backward mentally.

In the county and local jails we have frequent cause to note the relationship between feeble-mindedness and crime. Boys and young men, mentally weak, are often found being held for trial or serving a jail sentence for rape, or attempted rape, incendiarism or other crime.

Many of the children whose cases are brought before the juvenile courts are weak mentally or come from homes where, because of the weak wills of the parents, they were not given proper training or direction.

The last resort of the juvenile courts is the state reform schools. In these institutions are many children of this class of mental defectives. On a recent visit to such a school were seen former inmates of an institution for feeble-minded, besides others who were so dull they could make but little progress in the elementary class in school. I have in mind a sixteen-year-old reform school boy, the greater part of whose life has been spent in different institutions. His father is both idiotic and epileptic, his mother is feeble-minded. He has three sisters who are deaf mutes, one of whom is also feeble-minded. One of the sisters married a deaf and dumb man and bore one son.

Mental defectives are frequently committed to the reformatories for adults. From studies made at the New York State Reformatory it is stated that this class constitutes about one-fifth of the population of that institution. A far larger proportion is reported as being incapable of controlling their powers or co-ordinating their faculties and are termed "control defectives." The superintendent of schools at the Indiana Reformatory states that about 21 per cent. of those received are mentally defective.

In the state prisons, also, are to be found those who are feeble-minded along with others who are epileptic and insane. Some of these were nuisances in their respective communities; some were sent here because there appeared to be no other place to send them; others for the commission of offenses for which they were not really responsible.

In a careful study recently made of the prisoners at the Indiana State Prison, it was found that in a total population of 926, 114, or 12 per cent. were insane, epileptic or decidedly feeble-minded. It is a significant fact that 30.5 per cent. of these 114 defectives were committed for such crimes as murder, manslaughter and rape, while in a total of 2,365 consecutive admissions examined, the percentage

of commitments for this class of crimes was found to be but 14.6 per cent. On the contrary those who committed petit and grand larceny were 53.2 per cent. of the 2,365 consecutive admissions and 37.7 per cent. of the 114 defectives. In other words, the percentage of commitments for crimes against the person is more than twice as great among defectives as among prisoners not so classed. In this connection the following observation is made: "It must be borne in mind concerning criminals that in large proportions they spring from ancestry in which mental and neurotic defect is marked. They are defective in large numbers."*

In both reformatories and prisons these defectives are the most troublesome class of prisoners. Irrational, irritable, their weak minds led by their impulses, they interfere with discipline and their management requires the highest skill. Their presence at times leads to disturbances and sometimes serious if not fatal assaults upon officers and inmates.

The provisions existing in our land for the care of the feeble-minded in institutions are far less adequate than are those for other defective classes, and in many States are wholly lacking. Twenty-three† commonwealths have established institutions, while in several others there are private schools and homes. These stand as splendid monuments to the intelligence and benevolence of their builders. The movement continues in other States, but results come slowly. Maine and Oregon are now endeavoring to establish schools for the feeble-minded, and Illinois and a half-dozen other States are considering institutions for epileptics. We wish them all speed. One thing I must say regarding these and all State institutions—they can never accomplish their purpose unless the interests of the inmate are held paramount to everything else. They must be conducted upon the merit system. Partisan politics has no part in the management of any charity of any State.

The inmates of the existing institutions for the feeble-minded are principally children. While the more intelligent of these are capable of a certain amount of mental training, the industrial

*Dr. J. W. Milligan, National Prison Association Proc. 1906, p. 203.

†New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Kentucky, Washington, California. Canada has a school for feeble-minded at Orillia, Ontario. Recent legislation has provided for institutions in Maine, Rhode Island and Oregon, and Vermont has made a beginning.

training given in these institutions is generally recognized as their most valuable educational work. "Development through the hand should be the underlying principle. * * * Training should lead directly to some avenue of employment, early entered upon, as constant occupation is for them the only security from deterioration." (Dr. M. W. Barr.)

Years ago it was the prevailing view that many of these children could be educated and trained into self-supporting and self-directing citizens. This is possible with very few. Dr. W. E. Fernald has said: "No really feeble-minded person ever was, or can be, entirely cured." It is now generally recognized that while many can be made self-supporting under direction, few have sufficient judgment to direct themselves. Therefore most of them should be kept separate and apart from the world.

Those of whom I have spoken are the children. Why not stop the birth of such children? Why should not feeble-minded women of child-bearing age be secluded? They are now largely cared for at public expense in almshouses and by other agencies. If they could be segregated in institutions, the reproduction of their kind would be cut off and at the same time they could earn a part of their own support.

Many of these women are the mothers of from three to six feeble-minded children. Five women of this class not specially selected are known to be the mothers of nineteen children. Fifteen of the children have been inmates of public institutions and the records show that up to the present time they have spent a total of 136 years therein. At an average annual maintenance expense of $100, these children have cost the State $13,600, and seven of them still remain public charges. Last year their maintenance, at the average per capita cost in the institution of which they are inmates, amounted to $911.68. Could these five mothers have been placed in custody fifteen or more years ago, what a great saving of money would have been effected, to say nothing of the entailed suffering and degeneracy!

I recall sometime since when a woman and her four children, all feeble-minded, were together brought to a State institution for the care of the feeble-minded. The children were admitted to the school and the mother to the custodial department. This is not an extreme case.

From these statements it is not difficult to get some idea of the

expense a feeble-minded woman can entail upon a community. Aside from this are the evils of her life and the seeds that are sown, of which no one can count the cost. Feeble-mindedness bears with it a vast train of woes. Not only are there complications with blindness, deafness, epilepsy and other diseases, but frequently the descendants of feeble-minded parents are epileptic, blind, deaf, or afflicted in some other way.

A study of 803 families, selected because of feeble-mindedness in one or more generations, has been made from records in the office of the Indiana Board of State Charities.* These families consist of 3,048 members, of whom 1,664, or 55 per cent., are feeble-minded. It has not been possible to learn the parentage of every one of these persons, but counting only those of whose parents we have some information, it was found that of 1,748, or 57.3 per cent., one or the other and frequently both of the parents were feeble-minded or afflicted with some related physical defect. Included in these 803 families are 312 families in which feeble-mindedness was found in two or more generations. In this group there are 1,643 individuals, of whom 57 per cent. are feeble-minded and 60.6 per cent. are either mentally or physically defective. In the first generation either the father or the mother, and frequently both, are feeble-minded. Their descendants in the second generation, including 59 men and women who married into the families and became the parents of later generations, number 754, of whom 531, or 70.4 per cent., are defective. The entire number of descendants, extending into the fifth generation and including 76 men and women who married into the families, is 1,019, and among them are 624 defectives. This indicates inherited defect in 61.2 per cent. of the descendants of these 312 feeble-minded parents. This record is doubtless nothing more than typical of what can be gathered, by care, in other states. It shows one of the most potential destructive factors in our civilization; one of the most terrible forces acting against society; a fact we have to face, a condition to meet, a power that must be kept under.

A few states have established custodial institutions for the detention and care of feeble-minded women during the reproductive period. Here they have regular habits, their strength is employed in useful service and their passions are restrained. Forever they

*See appendix to President's report, end of vol.

are separated from the world. Forever they are prevented from reproducing their kind. One's feelings are those of gratitude to the states which have shown such wisdom.

Feeble-mindedness is generally distributed. It is inherited to a very great extent. Insanity, epilepsy, blindness and paralysis often accompany it or are produced from similar causes. When the feeble-minded are unrestrained, immorality is the natural result. Illegitimacy and a debasing effect upon the standard of morals in the community follow. Feeble-mindedness is a prolific source of crime. The burden of the feeble-minded, both socially and financially, is far beyond our comprehension. It is safe to say that there is not a state in the Union in which these conditions do not exist and from which multiplied cases can not be taken to illustrate the points made. The question is, what shall be done?

It is important for us to understand that we must support these defectives. Whether we will or not, we are compelled to do this, either through private charity or public aid. We have no choice in the matter. Then let us seek the wisest, the most helpful way. Emerson says: "The way to mend the bad world is to create the right world."

The people should be informed regarding degeneracy and the need of the proper training of the young, the custody of the adults, correct marriage laws and means of preventing the reproduction of degenerates.

The movement for special classes in our public schools has shown most gratifying results. These classes should be extended and multiplied.

Medical examination of children in the public schools and juvenile courts and on admission to children's institutions and reformatories for adults is essential for their work.

Our colleges need to give instruction concerning both the normal and abnormal portions of society and the relative effect of each. Our normal schools need to give special attention to all the classes of defectives so that prospective teachers may know how to distinguish the members of each group and how to teach them. The schools for the feeble-minded are afforded a great opportunity to be laboratories for the training of teachers and social workers. In this connection the beginning made by the New Jersey School should be commended.

Increased facilities for the care of the feeble-minded, including schools for the children and custodial institutions for the adults, are demanded. In every school increased efficiency should be the motto until every pupil who is capable is taught that which will enable him to express himself in the most efficient way.

The states should be encouraged to establish separate institutions upon extensive tracts of land for the epileptics and remove to them the more competent of these unfortunates from the schools for the feeble-minded.

There is no state in the Union but has some form of law to regulate marriage. Some are crude, but a study of them shows the tendency of the times toward more scientific measures. Among the more advanced laws which tend to prevent the marriage of the unfit may be mentioned those of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Maine, Kansas, Ohio, New Jersey, and Indiana. These are important, but their value could be increased by education of the people and training of the officials. They are needed in all the states and eventually there should be practical uniformity of marriage laws.

Attention has been given to the necessity of some other way of preventing the reproduction of the feeble-minded. Some states have established institutions for the custodial care of feeble-minded women. They are a great blessing to humanity and in the end a source of public economy. Many there have been who have advocated the sterilization of these and other permanent public charges. In some institutions this has been tried. Efforts have been made in several states to enact laws authorizing or requiring an operation to prevent procreation. These efforts have generally failed. So far as I know, Indiana is the only state that has such a law.

While there are many anti-social forces, I believe none demands more earnest thought, more immediate action than this. Feeble-mindedness produces more pauperism, degeneracy and crime than any other one force. It touches every form of charitable activity. It is felt in every part of our land. It affects in some way all our people. Its cost is beyond our comprehension. It is the unappreciated burden of the unfortunate. It is a burden we are compelled to bear; therefore let us bear it intelligently, to the end that the chain of evil may be lessened, the weak cared for, and the future brighter with hope because of our efforts.

"Ye who are strong must bear the infirmities of the weak."

The Conference Sermon.

AN ADDRESS BY ARCHBISHOP JOHN IRELAND, OF THE DIOCESE OF MINNESOTA.

The text was the parable of the last judgment. Matthew, 25th chapter.

Christian Brethren, an inspiring thing it is to witness men and women gathered together from all parts of the country in the name of charity, to counsel together how best to relieve the needy, console the suffering, alleviate humanity and minister to fellow men. It is an event worthy of Christ's holy religion, an event which we can well ascribe to the widening influences of the blessed gospel of peace and love which He brought to the world. In the name of humanity and in the name of humanity's God, I say, blessed are you who work thus earnestly for fellow men, thereby working for the Heavenly Father.

To inspire you with yet greater activity in the work you have chosen, to tell you how you may enlist the sympathy and co-operation of others in your work, I shall speak upon Christian charity. Charity is defined as sincere, earnest and active love for our fellow man, not contenting itself with mere words or sentimentality; seeking opportunities to improve our fellow men.

It is an easy matter to assert our love of fellow men who are in high honor, who are in possession of life's blessings. But when a neighbor is downcast or suffering or poor and we go to him in active sympathy, we can really then say to ourselves that charity is no stranger to our souls.

A difficulty in the way of charity is that those who call for our help are often unworthy of our affection. Their miseries have been brought on at times by their own improvidence, or their own neglect. Again those who are benefited show very little gratitude. They may forget the sacrifice you made. They may forget your very name. What is then needed is some motive that will lift us out of ourselves, that will invest the neighbor with a fine attractiveness which he does not possess in himself.

We are primarily beings of reason, secondarily only beings of sentiment. Unless there is a high divine motive for charity there

is peril that it tires and ceases. Do we find in mere human considerations a motive sufficiently strong and sufficiently high? No. What are these human considerations? No doubt they have their value which should be conceded, but we feel that they have not a sufficiency of power to overcome the impediments to fervent, active charity. We cannot quote the worthiness of the object of our charity. There is no affection for misery which is the result of faults. We consider the good to human society, and as we are all part and parcel of human society, the uplifting of society is something that should please us and which we find ennobling. But in human society at best we find very little interest except so far as our own welfare is thereby promoted. And when men are seeking no good for themselves, nothing but the abstract bettering of human society, they soon grow cold in the work.

So we take humanity at large, which many philosophers think is the great motive of life and virtue on our part. This is very well for high-minded philosophers who can sit in their easy chairs away from the miseries and temptations of life, who can dream of the millenium that will come thousands of years hence. But the mass of humanity speaks in very weak tones, and if we were to look at humanity in all its defects, what is it but, as was said, "a whirl of minds?" What we need is a motive that will appeal to all men, at all times, which has an uplifting power that will draw us out of ourselves and into the arena, there to work tirelessly for fellow man because fellow man is the child of God.

My Christian friends, earth furnishes very few joys and very few inspirations. Inspirations for great things come from above. We need the superconsciousness of the Divine, and this is what Christ taught and practiced, and hence with Christ there came into the world a power for charity such as never before had been felt in the hearts of men.

Looking across the pages of history we notice the fact that with the coming of Christ humanity rose to heights to which it had never believed itself equal, towards which it had never striven, and since that day humanity by the impulse of Christ has remained at that high elevation. If this is true of the high morale of humanity, it is in a very particular manner true of charity. The whole coming and working of Jesus upon earth was love for man, and He himself says, "What greater love hath one for another than to give his own life?" It was through love for man, that Christ

was led on through His mortal career even to the cross of Calvary, where He died for the sake of humanity. And while He walked upon the earth the walking was one of charity. He wrought miracles and worked continually in the service of his fellow man. He cured the sick. He made the lame walk, the blind to see, and He fed the hungry in the desert. He comforted the afflicted, and He bent himself to the lowly, and when others would stone the erring woman, He said to her, "go in peace," and His sweet words brought her back to virtue and holiness. His love was restricted to no one people and by no national frontiers. "Go to all men," He said to His apostles, "Teach all nations, all things what I have said to you." Christ, telling of the mercy of the Samaritan, said, "Go thou and do likewise." That is Christ's own example, and whoever loves Christ must go outside of himself and give his love to those who need it. Whoever takes to himself the noble title of Christian must be a servant of humanity and a lover of charity. Christ gave the reason of this charity to which He himself is such a noble exemplar. He proclaimed the great command, "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with thy whole mind and thy whole heart and thy whole strength, and thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." It is the same command. You cannot love God without loving the neighbor. It matters very little what claim the neighbor has upon you nor how attractive or unattractive he is. You are not serving the neighbor for his own sake, but for the sake of the Lord. You can never ask does the Almighty deserve my service. The Almighty has no need. It is the neighbor who has, and God says what you would do for Me do for him, and that is the spirit of charity. It is sometimes said, well, are we then to give ourselves totally to the service of fellow men and forget the service of the Almighty? There are those who will say, I will serve God in my own heart. I will worship and adore Him. I will trouble myself very little about my fellow men, and let them do their part towards Almighty God. That will not do. Almighty God cannot accept that exclusive service. We must do as Christ did—serve our fellow man while serving the Almighty. Serving the Almighty implies service of fellow man.

Then there is this other error which sometimes gains ground. You say, I am inclined to be merciful to my fellow man, and is not that sufficient? I do not pray to the Almighty. I do not worship Him, but I do my fellow man. Is not that sufficient religion? By

no means. The Almighty first, and then man, for the sake of the Almighty. Furthermore, that charity which we profess towards our fellow man is weak indeed unless it is fertilized by the angels of heaven. When our service of fellow men is not the service of the Almighty, what is it?—sentiment from a sympathetic mind which will do no good because it is not to be had in the hearts of fellow men and is not an act of charity that means great sacrifice. So we must first lift ourselves up to the skies in worship and in love and dare to drink into our souls the divine love itself and then returning upon earth seek among our fellows the Divine life.

Before the coming of Christ, Greece and Rome had their charity and did active and earnest work. But it was without real sympathy. It was the boast of Athens that she alone had raised an altar to pity, and yet pity as understood by the Athenians was limited to the Greek. Not in Rome and Greece was there a refuge for the homeless or a hospital for the sick or an asylum for the orphan. Christ came and light pervaded humanity. The practical religion of the Christians was to gather the lame and the maimed and the suffering. When the old Christian leader was summoned before the imperial throne and bidden to produce the treasures of the church, he asked for a few days' delay, and brought throngs of poor and suffering and said to the judge, here are the treasures of the Christian church.

As we pass down the Christian ages we see provision was made to encounter every evil, physical and moral, to which humanity is subject. Men and women withdrew themselves from all the charm of life to give themselves to the service of the weak. Every Christian felt that his duty was to assist the suffering, and because of that love for humanity which was the result of the Christian religion, all things were changed in society. The family was purified and fortified because the strong men saw in the weak women the image and likeness of the Almighty. The child was protected because a sinning father and mother saw the reflected image of Jesus of Nazareth.

In olden days the captive was ever the slave of the victor. In Christendom he was called the brother, and so mercy went out to him. St. Paul, sending back to his master the slave Onesimus, says, "Receive him as thy brother," and immediately the slave became the brother, and at last slavery ceased in Christendom.

Much is said today of justice in our dealings with our fellow man.

They say let the rich give what is the due of the poor and there is no need of charity. Oh, friends, how best secure justice? I do not deny the value of justice, and I would wish to see every laborer sharing in the profits of his labor that share which God has intended. I would have the rich treat with equity the poor and the employer treat with equity the laborer, but how best to bring all that about—through charity. Make the rich see in the poor a brother and a child of God, and he will treat him as a brother. He will shrink from doling out such paltry wages to his workmen as to compel them to need charity. But, if you take away charity, justice then takes coldly in the hand the scale to measure how little it needs to give to the laborer. Take the religion of Christ away and the workman is simply a piece of machinery to be held as long as he fits into the service and to be thrown out in the waste heap as soon as he gives no longer the full output of energy which the master demands. That is what would happen to those who would do without charity and call for justice without religion. Where is the justice for the orphan baby? The orphan baby has no labor to return. Where is the justice towards the stranger whom you have never seen; with whom you had no dealings whatsoever? You can not talk of justice when the poor and the suffering have brought misery upon themselves. What is there that will bring aid and help to all who suffer, whoever they are, whether or not they are worthy of our affection? Nothing but divine charity. What is needed today, when money so easily accumulates in the hands of fortune's favorites, is to put charity in their hearts. Definite property is sacred. The product of one's arm or of one's mind belongs to him. At the same time, his needs satisfied, it belongs to the children of God, and charity becomes the means of distribution.

You must each one be on fire with charity, and the light you need is the light of personal service, which does immensely more good than mere alms. For after all, what is it that the afflicted need? What but a word of sweet companionship, a word of encouragement, or something that will lighten their burdens. And how many of the miseries of humanity that can not be relieved by money? And how many opportunities of showing your love for your fellow man by personal service?

There are too many of our people who think they have done all their duty to their neighbor when they send a contribution to some charitable organization. They say, well, I have sent my check, and

that is enough. Should any poor person come to them they say, "Go to the society." Now the society is necessary. We need a concentration and direction of efforts, but I must protest against those who never give themselves, who never feel the power of human sympathy. It is unfortunate for them, because the true soil is that in which charity works, and where charity is excluded from the soil, there is a sterility of great things, of higher impulses, and nobler inspirations.

St. Paul lays down a great principle. He said if a man does not work therefore let him not eat. We must be careful in our charity not to belittle him who receives it. It is not mere sentiment and mere sympathy. It must produce some permanent results, and that is what your organization aims to do, to build up men and women so that they can provide for themselves and to administer charity in such a way that it is not a waste. It is a sacrilege to waste charity in maintaining improvidence and heedlessness. God made man and gave the command that those qualities of soul or body be put in practice, and where they are not, the anathema of the Almighty descends. Now we must follow out that rule and induce those whom we are assisting to develop the talent that there is in them. An act which will make the improvident provide henceforward for himself, which will teach the heedless to work, is the highest charity.

We must take advantage of all the discoveries in sociology and in industry. Those are two gifts of the Almighty to humanity, and we are serving the Almighty when we make use of those gifts, hence preventive charity is far more valuable than that charity which only relieves. We must relieve, but let us be active in charity which will prevent evil passion and suffering, and which will put humanity on a higher stage.

God did not make this world to be continuously a world of sorrow or tears and suffering. There are sorrows and tears at best. But it is God's will that as far as we can we assuage grief and we diminish suffering. If every man and every woman were a true exemplar of Christ, living his life for his neighbor, and doing as He did, good everywhere, what a sweet, joyous world it would be. And because we wish this world to be sweet and joyous let us work continuously and strenuously to make it so.

It is whispered around that the world today is slipping away from religion, that it is refusing to look up to the skies, that it sets all

its attention upon the gold stored beneath. Let it once be believed that our souls are not made in the image and likeness of God; that we are now and will be but the slime of the earth; that we are all descendants of a mere beast—why, then, should we love other beasts; why, above all, should we make sacrifice of ourselves for them? Why should we smother our passions if satisfaction of the passions is all that is to come to us as a reward of merit? Take humanity away from religion, cut it loose from Almighty God, and you have transformed it into a home of wild beasts where the victory is to the strong, where selfishness is the whole power. God help the world if religion were to depart from it; for the very joys of this world we must cry out "Our Father, who art in heaven;" for the very charity so needed to make humanity at all possible, we must ever remember the great commandment, "Love the Lord, thy God, with thy whole heart and thy whole soul and thy neighbor as thyself," and be saved by Almighty God.

State Supervision and Administration.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY THE CHAIRMAN, ROBERT W. HEBBERD, COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

This subject is more than a twice told tale in the annals of this Conference. Indeed the theme, with its various sides and lights, is a perennial one. Reference to the proceedings of bygone years will show that at Conference after Conference, with but few exceptions, committees have reported at length on the subject of State Supervision of Charities. This will not appear singular when it is recalled that the first of these Conferences, held in 1874, was composed almost entirely of representatives of State Boards of Charities.

These papers are soon to be rendered conveniently accessible through the plans of the Secretary of the Conference, and therefore no extended reference need be made to them at this time. To the inquiring mind they should form a liberal education on the subject.

The necessity for State supervision of charitable and correctional agencies was recognized in this country many years ago. In the early days of the last century it was the custom in at least one great State for the legislature, through duly appointed committees, to exercise such supervision in a more or less irregular sort of a way. A reference to the legislative documents of that State will show that such supervision ranged in scope from an investigation of the administration of a small county almshouse to the visitation and inspection of all the charitable and correctional agencies within the State. One of the first suggestions of an official nature to be found on record for the establishment of a State supervisory board is contained in a report made by a special committee of the Senate of the State of New York in 1857, six years before the first State Board of Charities was established in this country. This committee, after a most thorough examination into the condition of the charitable and correctional agencies of the State, made a valuable report covering over two hundred printed pages, which revealed many abuses and defects, particularly in the management of almshouses and jails.

As a result of its inquiries the committee expressed its conviction of the necessity of providing by law:

"For a more efficient and constant supervision of all the charitable and reformatory institutions which participate in the public bounty, or are supported by taxation; and a commission of well-qualified persons, to be appointed by the Governor and Senate, with such arrangement of the terms of service as will constantly secure experience, appears to be the best method of affecting the purpose."

Although the State Charities Aid Association of New York was not organized until 1872, the remarkable prescience of this Senate Committee is further illustrated by the fact that it pointed out the obvious desirability of having the citizens of every locality in the State interest themselves in the condition of the county almshouses in the following language:

"Before passing from the subject of poor houses, the committee may be allowed to say that it is much to be regretted that our citizens generally manifest so little interest in the condition even of those in their immediate neighborhood. Individuals who take great interest in human suffering whenever it is brought to their notice, never visit them, and are entirely uninformed that in a county almshouse almost at their own doors may be found the lunatic suffering for years in a dark and suffocating cell, in summer, and almost freezing in winter; where a score of children are poorly fed, poorly clothed and quite untaught; where the poor idiot is half starved and beaten with rods because he is too dull to do his master's bidding; where the aged mother is lying in perhaps her last sickness, unattended by a physician and with no one to minister to her wants; where the lunatic, and that lunatic, too, a *woman*, is made to feel the lash in the hands of a brutal underkeeper—yet these are to be found—they all exist in our State. And the committee are quite convinced that to this apparent indifference on the part of the citizens may be attributed in a great degree the miserable state to which these houses have fallen; and they would urge upon the benevolent in all parts of the State to look into their condition and thus assist to make them comfortable abodes for the indigent and the unfortunate."

This picture, while certainly not a pleasing one, faithfully portrays some of the conditions which called into being the State Board of Charities and the State Charities Aid Association of New York. Conditions of a similar nature contributed, doubtless, to the success of like movements in the other states which established supervisory boards.

In a report made to the session of the Conference held in Denver in 1892, the Hon. William Pryor Letchworth, who was chairman of the Committee on State Boards of Charities, gave, together with other valuable information, some interesting details of the further events which led to the establishment by the Legislature, on the recommendation of the Governor, of the State Board of Charities of

New York in 1867. This was accomplished largely through the efforts which the late Hon. John V. L. Pruyn, a distinguished lawyer of Albany, had been making for several years. This action on the part of the Legislature and the Governor was, doubtless, encouraged by the fact that the Legislature of Massachusetts had four years previously established the Board of State Charities of Massachusetts, thereby setting a commendable example to its sister States. This was followed by Ohio, also in 1867; by Pennsylvania and Illinois, in 1869; by Michigan and Wisconsin, in 1871; by Connecticut in 1873; by Minnesota in 1883, and by Indiana in 1889. Other States have since followed, with the result that there are at the present time 21 supervisory boards of charities and correction in existence. In some States, particularly in the West in recent years, State boards of control have been established under one name or another, until at the present time there are not less than 12 such boards in administrative control of the institutions of as many States.

Those of us who believe most firmly in the supervisory policy must admit that each State should be the best judge of its own needs, and that it is more than probable that in the fulness of time it will create the system best adapted to its requirements. Although as a matter of principle there is a radical difference of purpose between the supervisory boards of charities and the boards of control, it is nevertheless true that in some of the States the supervisory boards have important executive duties, which do not appreciably interfere with their supervisory work, while in some other States where there are boards of control, such boards will be found to have equally important supervisory duties, which are not incompatible with the function of control. Perhaps the most complicated situation will be found in the State of New York, where three bodies evidently intended to exercise the duties of visitation and inspection over the charitable and correctional institutions of the State are provided for in the constitution. One of these bodies, the State Commission in Lunacy, has become through the gradual addition of executive duties, practically a board of control, whereby there exists at the present time virtually no independent supervision of a judicial nature of the State hospitals for the insane in New York. The State Board of Charities and the State Commission of Prisons, on the other hand, remain almost purely supervisory bodies, although the former has important duties of an executive character.

The extent to which a board of charities, primarily intended to carry on the work of visitation and inspection, can exercise administrative functions without impairing its supervisory character, is a question, but nevertheless one that is continually calling for practical solution. There are those who contend that the least departure from a strictly judicial attitude in reference to this subject, is unsafe, while others, equally sincere, are convinced that a State board of charities may exercise a form of financial control over the purely State institutions, for the purpose of promoting efficiency and checking wastefulness, without any appreciable departure from the supervisory relation.

The necessity for State supervision of charitable and correctional agencies is now clearly recognized in many of the States, although we can not yet say "From Maine to California" in the accustomed phrase. The nature and extent of such supervision are, however, more debatable questions. There are but few who seriously attempt to question the right of the State to visit, inspect and maintain a general supervision over all charitable and correctional agencies that are in receipt of public moneys. But there are many who question the right of the State to supervise the work of private charities not in receipt of public moneys, even though such societies are incorporated by permission of the State and have the care and control of helpless and friendless persons. This is a matter which, it appears, has never been clearly and conclusively adjudicated. Opposition to the exercise of supervisory authority of this nature has not only prevented its extension, but the fear that such power might be sought, has at times, it is believed, delayed the establishment of supervisory boards in some of the States. In explanation of this opposition the fear has been expressed that persons of erratic disposition inimical to the institutions might possibly secure membership on such boards and work great injury to useful charities. While this fear may not be entirely groundless, inasmuch as there is always some danger attending the exercise of public authority, it nevertheless is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the State should be in a position to know at least annually the nature and extent of the dependency within its borders, and to make certain that the helpless and friendless, and particularly the young, are receiving proper care and attention. The fact that in the most populous State in the Union, where the interests of the private charities are the greatest, this work of supervision has for many years been car-

ried on in a just and equitable manner with the most beneficent results, seems sufficient proof that its proper and conservative exercise is by no means impracticable.

The committee has arranged for the discussion of this phase of the subject at a section meeting to be held on Monday afternoon next, when the Rev. William J. White, D. D., Supervisor of Catholic Charities of the Diocese of Brooklyn, will present an interesting paper on the "Supervision of Private Charities."

While the State Board of Charity of Massachusetts has since its establishment executed the laws of that State with relation to the State and alien poor, and this has also for a long period of years been a function of the State Board of Charities of New York, like duties have more recently devolved upon the boards of other localities. There is a growing feeling, in some of the Eastern States at least, that the State boards should assist in devising better methods than now exist for the care of the homeless and the vagrant. The paper presented under the auspices of this committee by Dr. Orlando F. Lewis, Superintendent of the Joint Application Bureau of the C. O. S., and the A. I. C. P., New York City, at the section meeting of yesterday morning, on "State Boards and the Vagrancy Problem," contains a mine of valuable information on this subject gathered not only in this country, but from some of the best sources abroad as well.

As State boards of charities are usually non-political, and not only have no patronage to bestow but are clothed with the duty of preventing any improper use of the civil service of the institutions, such boards are from time to time subject to political attacks of an embarrassing nature. Fortunately, however, public opinion may almost invariably be relied upon to remedy any injury that may temporarily be inflicted upon these important interests. The members of this Conference are familiar with the histories of some of these attacks, and more particularly those of recent years in the State of New York. It will be interesting as well as encouraging for them to learn that within the past twenty days the Governor of New York has given executive approval to a bill restoring the State Commission of Prisons to the position it held before one of his predecessors reduced it in membership and influence through the incredible idea that he was really accomplishing a reform.

State supervisory boards must continue to grow in number and influence as the need for them and the extension of their duties and

powers are made manifest. At times this growth has seemed slow and uncertain, but looking backward over the years the total result will be seen in reality to have been great. The careful and conservative exercise of the powers and duties devolved upon such bodies will expedite their growth in number and influence as nothing else can. Upon the character of their membership, therefore, largely depends the future history of the movement for State supervision of charitable and correctional agencies.

THE NECESSARY AND REASONABLE POWERS OF A STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

BY WILLIAM RHINELANDER STEWART, PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The establishment of State Boards of Charities is attributable to the recognition by the people of the States of the necessity for a twofold general supervision, not imposed upon any other State Board.

(1) The protection of the individual who, because of some misfortune, can not be properly maintained by his family and friends and thus becomes a dependent upon some form of organized charity.

Every citizen of a State, man, woman or child, who is supported in whole or in part by the State, or by any county, city, town or village within its limits, or by any organized charitable or benevolent society or institution, is and should be considered a ward of the State, and the protecting care of the State is a right which he may claim, and which should never be invoked in vain. Regular inspections made by State Boards of Charities most effectively secure this protection to the individual.

(2) The protection of the integrity of the funds, whether raised by taxation, or contributed by organized private charitable societies, for the relief of the individual.

Money raised by taxation for the support of the charitable institutions of a State, or its subdivisions, is money taken from the earnings of the people for which scrupulous accounting should be made.

The voluntary contributions of individuals for the maintenance of private charities form sacred funds, the disbursement of which should also be safeguarded. Public and private trusts are thus established for the benefit of citizens of the State maintained as its wards, either in public or private charitable institutions. The duty of the State to those who contribute to either public or private relief funds, and to its wards in the receipt of either form of care, has not been fully discharged until a body has been established to see that both public and private funds are honestly collected, honestly administered, and honestly disbursed, for the benefit of those for whom they have been created.

The police powers of the State operate through the exercise of these two fundamentally important powers of a State Board of Charities for the protection of the individuals to be cared for, and of the money collected for their care. All powers which have for their object the welfare of the individual ward of the State, and the honest administration of the relief funds, are necessary and reasonable, and no others need be sought or employed.

In every well governed community, state laws provide, through the operation of boards of health, of insurance and of banking, for the bodily welfare of the citizen, for the security of his home and other possessions, of his life insurance policy, and of his savings in some bank or other place of deposit. But public sentiment has not yet everywhere recognized the similar duty owed to the inmates of all charitable institutions, and to the integrity of the trust funds created for their support.

That Boards of Charities in some form are necessary departments of every State government will be doubtless conceded by every member of this Conference. Whether they should be boards of control, possessing such executive powers as the appointment and discharge of the officials of public institutions, and controlling the expenditure of public funds, or whether they should be supervisory boards, visiting and inspecting charitable institutions and without the power to bestow patronage or to make appropriations, is a question which has frequently been the subject of debate at our sessions. The process of discussion will, in my opinion, settle this important question satisfactorily.

It is a grateful task to me to outline, as a contribution to the further consideration of this question, some of the more important powers now exercised with advantage by the New York State Board

of Charities, which from time to time have been confided to it in response to public opinion.

The New York State Board of Charities was established by act of the Legislature in 1867, and numerous statutes of later date have conferred additional powers, and imposed additional duties upon it. The State Constitution of 1894 ratified and confirmed these powers, added others, and gave to the Board the recognition of inclusion among the few Constitutional Boards. The mandate of the Constitution to the Legislature to provide for the Board has resulted in more adequate appropriations for the prosecution of its work. New York State has entrusted to other boards the supervision of the insane and of criminals, the State Commission in Lunacy and the State Commission of Prisons, both also Constitutional Boards, being severally charged with the oversight of the State Hospitals for the Insane, and the prisons, penitentiaries and jails. All other charitable and reformatory institutions in the State are subject to the general supervision of the State Board of Charities.

Before proceeding to the consideration of the powers and duties of the Board, brief mention should be made of its composition and organization. The Board numbers twelve Commissioners appointed from different parts of the State, and annually elects by ballot a president and vice-president. From the organization of the Board until 1894 the members served without pay. But as the State Constitution now requires compensation for all constitutional State officers or boards, by the Charities Law the usual trustees' fee of ten dollars for attendance at meetings of the Board, or of its committees, is paid, with the limitation to $500—less than a living salary—to any member in any one year. This arrangement was suggested by the members of the Board.

The main office of the Board is in the Capitol at Albany, and two branch offices are maintained—of the Eastern Inspection District in New York, and of the Western Inspection District in Rochester. Three departments are organized, under the direction of the Secretary, who is the executive officer of the Board. They are the Department of the Secretary, the Department of State and Alien Poor, and the Department of Inspection. The members of the staff, with the exception of the Secretary, are taken from the State Civil Service list and paid reasonable salaries. These employes hold office practically during good behavior, usually remaining for years and receiving promotion for merit. At present they number twenty-

nine, of whom thirteen do inspection work, and six are stenographers. The work of the Board is so great that all are busily employed and earn their salaries.

The Board meets about eight times a year. Most of its work is carried on by standing and special committees, usually of three members. The custom of the Board is to hold each Commissioner responsible for the good order of the charitable institutions in his own district, with which he must necessarily be most familiar. Commissioners are appointed for terms of eight years, and reappointments have been the rule. It is a source of pride to the writer that he has lately completed his twenty-fifth year of continuous service. The Conference will pardon the reflection that had the commission carried with it a living salary this long tenure would probably have been impossible. Representatives of different religious beliefs sit in harmony at the Board's table, and with such reasonable and open minds that divisions are of rare occurrence. Practically all important Board action has been unanimous.

It must be remembered that although the Board's supervisory powers are large, and many of an executive character have been entrusted to it, no immediate control either over appointments in institutions, public or private, or over appropriations is exercised by the Board. It has no patronage to bestow and desires none, being exceptional in this particular among the State Boards. This condition has from time to time led to political assaults, from which the weight of public opinion alone has protected the Board. At least one Governor has recommended that the Board should be abolished, and another, no later than 1901, recommended that the membership of the Board should be reduced to three, of whom the President should receive a living salary. As the same Governor subsequently recommended that all the Boards of Managers of State charitable and reformatory institutions subject to the supervision of the Board should be abolished, and their powers of administration and control devolved upon the State Board, the object he had in view may be readily perceived. To the powers of general supervision, mainly exercised by visitation and inspection, which the Board now and always has had, would have been added those of administration and control—clearly inconsistent powers—including the appointment of a small army of officers and employes. Given a State Board of three, exercising all these powers, the friendly interest of two would

have placed the Governor in practical control over many appointments, and a large annual expenditure.

The State Board unanimously opposed this proposition, made common cause with the Boards of Managers of the institutions which were generally well conducted, and with the earnest and aggressive support of the leading newspapers of both parties, and of all the public and private charitable organizations, defeated this dangerous and insidious attempt at State centralization under political control of the State's charitable and reformatory institutions, and secured the retention of the present system of separate supervision and separate control, with its beneficial checks and balances. What happened to the "business" Governor who planned the onslaught upon our charitable system will not soon be forgotten in our State—a repetition of his blunder is unlikely.

The Commissioners of the Board, by committees and individually, annually visit the State and county institutions, and such private charitable institutions as seem to them to require their personal attention. The general inspection work is carried on by a staff of thirteen inspectors, both men and women, appointed from the State Civil Service list, and they are so assigned to duty as to cover annually all the public and private charitable institutions in the State receiving any public money. Almshouses are more frequently inspected.

All classes of charitable institutions have benefited by these inspections and their condition is now generally good and better than ever before. The inspectors, as the result of experience gained in visiting a particular class of charities, become trained experts. For example, the 130 dispensaries in the State are all inspected and reported upon by one man who should know more about them than any other in the State. Written reports of all inspections are prepared by the inspectors and after consideration in detail by the two Inspection District Committees of the Board are presented to the Board and by it regularly sent to the Boards of Managers of the institutions for their consideration, with request that attention be given to any recommendations for improved methods or care, and that report be made of any action based thereon. These inspection reports form the basis of a classification of the private charitable institutions into first, second and third classes, according to conditions found upon inspection, the former comprising those in whose

management no defects were found, the last those in which important reforms were found to be necessary, while the second, and by far the largest class, includes those institutions found in average condition. This system has been found to operate well and the Board takes pleasure, from time to time, in placing an institution in the first class.

Some idea of the vast extent of the organized public and private charitable work now being carried on within the State of New York may be gained by the statement that a table compiled for this paper, and brought down to date, shows 1,581 separate institutions, nearly all of which contain inmates. Included in this table are 352 hospitals, 228 homes for children, 130 dispensaries, 119 homes for the aged, 96 out-door relief societies, 86 industrial schools, 84 fresh air charities, 80 city, county and town almshouses, etc., 78 day nurseries, 75 temporary homes, 32 reformatories, and 15 State institutions. Of the total number, 1,008 operate within thirty miles of the New York city hall.

POWERS OF THE BOARD IN 1867.

Viewed in the retrospect of forty years, the powers of the Board in 1867 appear very meager. Chapter 951 of the laws of that year authorizes the Board "to elect a President out of its own number, and such other officers and agents as it may deem proper," to visit and inspect all institutions subject to its inspection, the Commissioners, or some one of them, to visit annually all the charitable and correctional institutions of the State, except prisons, including city and county alms or poor houses, receiving State aid. The Board was also required to report to the Legislature at the opening of each annual session the result of its investigations, and was empowered to appoint a clerk with a salary not exceeding $1,500 per annum.

Under the provisions of this law, no Commissioner of the Board could be directly or indirectly interested in building, repairing or furnishing any institution subject to the Board's visitation, nor could any trustee or manager of an institution subject to such visitation be eligible to appointment as a Commissioner of the Board. These reasonable restrictive provisions have continued in force until this day.

After this law took effect, the Board visited also the State and county hospitals for the insane, or asylums, as they were then called, and continued to exercise a general supervision over these institu-

tions until they were placed under control of a separate department of the State government in 1895.

Only two important powers were given to the Board of 1867, viz.: (1) To visit certain charitable institutions. (2) To report to the Legislature. These powers remain today, in the opinion of the writer, the two most important powers conferred upon the Board.

From this modest beginning there has been developed the comprehensive system of State supervision of its charitable agencies, both public and private, which it is the object of this paper briefly to describe.

A list of the specific powers compiled from the various Charity Laws numbers nearly three score. These equip the Board as an organization to carry on its work, including the reception of reports and statistical information from public and private institutions. The limits prescribed by the Conference prohibit the consideration in this paper of more than ten of the powers which experience has shown to be the most useful of those now exercised by the Board.

I.

"Visit, inspect, and maintain a general supervision of all institutions, societies or associations of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional or reformatory character, which are made subject to its supervision by the constitution or by law."

This is the fundamental power of the State Board, and there is reason for the belief that the establishment of the Board in 1867 gave effect to the public demand that some department of the State government should be charged with official responsibility for the welfare of all the sick and unfortunate inmates of charitable institutions, or the recipients of organized relief. By this measure, the State in a sense assumed the guardianship of all such. During the period of forty years since the Board was called into being, it has used this power continuously, visiting and inspecting annually by its members, Secretary and Inspectors, all State, county and municipal charitable institutions, and such private charitable ones as the laws permitted.

Until the year 1900, authority was considered by its members to repose in the Board to visit and inspect all private charitable institutions without exception. In 1898 the State Board sought to visit

and inspect the building of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, in which at the time destitute, unfortunate and delinquent children were maintained. The Society refused to admit the inspector and denied the right of the Board to make an inspection. Whereupon the Board applied for a writ of mandamus to compel the inspection at a special term of the Supreme Court, which was granted in a modified form. Cross appeals were thereupon taken by the Board and the Society to the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, First Department, composed of five judges, which unanimously granted the writ of mandamus in far-reaching terms, upholding fully the Board's right to visit and inspect. The Society then appealed to the Court of Appeals, which by the vote of four to three, rendered in what is commonly known as the "Gerry Case," held that the "New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children" is not a charitable institution within the meaning of the constitution, and therefore not subject to visitation and inspection by the State Board. The Court further held, although this contention was not before it, "that only such institutions are charitable within the meaning of the constitution as are in receipt of public money, the fruit of taxation."

In its report to the Legislature of 1901, the Board summarized the unfortunate results of this decision in the following language:

> "For the first time in a quarter of a century, by preventing the collection of reports from organized charities, it prevents the Legislature and the public from having any definite knowledge annually of the amount of dependency which exists in the State. For instance, the total number of dependent children in institutions can not now be definitely known through any official source. It can hardly be believed that the court intended this, but it is, nevertheless, one of the results of the decision.
>
> "The State is prevented from having any definite knowledge of the work of many of the charitable corporations it creates, not a few of them having authority to stand in the place of parents or guardians of dependent childhood.
>
> "The protection which the State has hitherto extended to the inmates of such exempted institutions is removed.
>
> "The protection to trust funds left by will or otherwise bestowed, for the use of the poor, amounting in some cases to hundreds of thousands of dollars, is also removed."

The result of this decision was to withdraw from the children under the care of the several Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children in the State, and the inmates of many children's homes, hospitals and other private charitable institutions, not in receipt of public money, the protection afforded them by the visits and inspec-

tions of the Board, and the duty of making such inspections has not yet been laid upon any other State department.

The supervision of the finances of State charitable institutions was taken from the Comptroller's office and vested in a Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities in the year 1902. The State Constitution makes these institutions subject to the inspection and visitation of the Board, and this broad language would seem to imply supervision of all their operations, including those of a fiscal nature. No inspection is complete which does not take account of the financial transactions of an institution, and the present arrangement of a separate State department for fiscal supervision results only in unnecessary duplication and overlapping of work and in divided responsibility. The financial supervision should also be centered in the State Board.

II.

"Annually report to the Legislature its acts, proceedings and conclusions for the preceding year, with results and recommendations."

This was one of the original powers of the Board and has been ratified and enlarged by subsequent statutes and by the Constitutional Convention of 1894.

The first report of the Board to the Legislature was in the form of a two-page pamphlet, dated April 15, 1868, which contained about 600 words. Its second report, 1869, covered 220 pages of discussions and statistics relative to the charitable activities of the State at that time. By 1876, the ninth report had grown to a volume of 730 pages. The report was included in one volume down to 1879, when it was found necessary to enlarge it to two volumes containing together 2,116 pages. In 1899, the report to the Legislature was in three bound volumes containing 2,837 pages, of which the first volume included the text, with its appended papers; the second, published as an appendix to the first, contained statistical tables exclusively; and the third, published as volume two, contained all legislation concerning the Board, its by-laws and rules, and a directory of all the Poor Law officers and charities of the State. In 1900, the report was enlarged to four volumes, the additional volume containing the record of the proceedings of the State Conference of Charities and Correction, which first met at Albany in November of that year. In this form the report still continues, the

last completely published one being for the year of 1905 and containing 3,548 pages. On February 11th of the present year, 1907, the Fortieth Annual Report of the Board was presented to the Legislature.

Included in the Board's report for the year 1903 was a digest in a volume of 1,300 pages of the charity legislation of the State of New York from the colonial days of 1609 to 1900. This was prepared on the suggestion and under the direction of Mr. Robert W. Hebberd, who was then the able Secretary of the Board, and furnishes a unique and interesting record of the subject of which it treats.

These volumes include a large number of reports of Standing and Special Committees presented to the Board and published as appended papers. The Board has a Standing Committee on Publication, and all matter, including text and committee reports, published by the Board is first read and approved by this Committee.

The statistical tables are thoroughly prepared and are found of great value by students of institutional management and of sociology, and the volumes are finding their way to all the great libraries of this and foreign countries.

III.

"Direct an investigation by a Committee of one or more of its members of the affairs and management of any institution or society or association, subject to its supervision, or of the conduct of its officers and employes. The Committee thus designated is empowered to issue compulsory process for the attendance of witnesses and the production of records, to administer oaths, to examine persons under oath, and to exercise the same powers in respect to such proceedings as belong to Referees appointed by the Supreme Court."

These grave and extensive powers, first conferred in 1871, equip the Board for one of its most useful functions. Such formal investigations have been always entered upon reluctantly, and only when there has been reason to believe that a thorough investigation, followed by suitable action upon its conclusion, could not be expected of the Board of Managers. The records of the Board show that State, county, municipal and private charitable institutions have been subjected to such investigations, but they have been comparatively few in number, averaging about one a year. Among these investigations was that of a great State institution, the stenographic

report of the testimony and exhibits of which, taken by a Committee of the Board, forms two bound volumes aggregating nearly 2,500 pages. Although some of these investigations have been strenuously opposed at every step by those interested in the continuation of the existing management, or apprehensive of the results to them personally, in no single instance have they failed to accomplish the reformation sought. This is in part owing to the public knowledge that such investigations are undertaken only as a last resort, and that once begun they will surely be prosecuted without fear or favor until the abuses discovered have been stopped, or the incompetent or unworthy officials discharged.

IV.

"Cause to be removed to the State or country from which he came any non-resident or alien poor found in any institution subject to the supervision of the Board."

This is one of the most important powers of the Board. Non-resident and alien poor are usually charges upon the localities in which they are found, but many aliens are also State poor persons, and the State and not the counties must provide for their maintenance.

The power of removal conferred upon the Board in 1873 had its roots in the original acts for the relief and settlement of the poor in the early history of the State. In the first Poor Law, Chapter 35, Laws of 1784, the local right of removal was given. This right was confirmed by Chapter 78, Laws of 1813, and extended by Chapter 221, Laws of 1821. From time to time the Legislature emphasized the necessity of protecting the State from the permanent settlement of paupers, and in the present general Poor Law, Chapter 225, Laws of 1896, and in the State Charities Law, Chapter 546, Laws of the same year, the removal of non-resident and alien poor is made one of the chief duties of the Board.

This power is exercised through its Department of State and Alien Poor. All the almshouses and other charitable institutions wherein dependents are maintained at public expense are inspected, and examination is made into the history, condition and needs of all State, non-resident and alien poor persons found in them, and whenever practicable, such persons are returned to their friends and families. A considerable annual appropriation is made to the Board for this purpose.

Since the enactment of the State Poor Law in 1873, and the Alien Poor Law in 1880, the Board has removed nearly thirty-five thousand non-residents and aliens. The beneficial personal effect of the return of this army of unfortunates to their homes can not be estimated. The economic results to the State and its subdivisions can be expressed with reasonable accuracy. It has been estimated that the average almshouse life of a pauper is fifteen years, and the annual cost of maintenance is known. Had the thirty-five thousand non-residents and aliens removed by the Board from the State remained in the almshouses for the average period, the cost of their maintenance alone would have amounted to more than fifty-four million dollars. The consequent saving to the State is sufficient to duplicate all the charitable institutions maintained by it. The removals are mainly to foreign countries—non-resident removals are few in number, and they are excluded from the estimate. No complaint of an improper removal has ever been brought to the attention of the Board.

V.

"Approve or disapprove the organization and incorporation of all institutions of a charitable character."

This function is a check upon unnecessary or ill-considered incorporations, applies to private charities only, and dates from a statute of 1883. The custom of the Board is to give public hearings, through committees, on application for approval of certificates of incorporation, and the by-laws direct special inquiry and report upon three points:

(a) The desirability for the existence of such an institution as is proposed to be incorporated, at the time and place and under the circumstances set forth in the application and certificate.

(b) The character and standing, in the community, of the proposed incorporators.

(c) The financial resources of the proposed institution, and its sources of future revenue.

The report of the Committee must be submitted in writing, and the three requirements certified to have been fully met by the applicant, before favorable action can be taken by the Board.

Under the operation of this law the Board has approved 261 certificates. Of these 86 were for hospitals and 47 for children's homes. Applications have been more frequent of late and 170 of the total

number have been acted upon within the past ten years. Evidently the Legislature intended thus to provide for the careful consideration of all applications for charters of private charities, and by the bestowal of this power upon the Board to prevent the passage of special acts of incorporation. This result has been accomplished and few legislative incorporations are now granted.

Although, as we have seen, private charitable incorporations must be passed upon and approved by the Board, and many unincorporated charities carry on work in buildings containing inmates which may be and are inspected and reported upon to the Board, yet, in view of the Gerry decision of the Court of Appeals above referred to, the day after the Board has incorporated the institution none of its commissioners or inspectors has the right to visit and inspect it to see how it is carrying on the work which the Board has authorized it to do. This is manifestly illogical, and the Board should be given authority to inspect all charitable institutions incorporated by the State with the Board's approval, as provided by law.

VI.

"Establish rules for the reception and retention of inmates of charitable institutions in receipt of public money."

This power was conferred upon the Board by the State Constitution of 1894. The evident intention of the Constitutional Convention was to prevent the unnecessary reception and detention of inmates in institutions, to secure the well-being of those received in compliance with the rules, and to prevent all improper and unnecessary expenditures of public money for maintenance or other purposes.

Pursuant to rules adopted by the Board June 8, 1895, all private homes for children under the supervision of the Board have since October 1, 1895, reported monthly. For the purpose of preparing these reports, printed blank forms, known as "Records of Admission," "Medical Certificates," and "Notices of Discharge" are furnished to the institutions, and one of each of these blanks is filled out for every child admitted to or discharged from an institution. These records of admission and notices of discharge, which contain all necessary facts, accompanied by a statement showing the total number of admissions and discharges, are sent to the office of the Board in Albany, where they are examined and placed on per-

manent file. The records thus collected constitute the only source of information regarding the inmates of children's homes throughout the State, and form the basis for certain statistical tables prepared annually for the use of the Board. On the first day of April, 1907, 119 institutions, with a total population of 31,582 children, were thus reporting to the Board, while the total number of records on file was 209,151.

The Board also maintains supervision over the transfer from one institution to another of children supported wholly or in part by public funds. The written consent to the transfer, granted in each individual case by a Commissioner of the Board, is also filed in the office of the Board with the other records of the child.

That so large a number of children should be maintained in institutions emphasizes the need of preventive measures for the preservation of the homes from which they come, and of intelligent efforts to place them in suitable foster homes. It must be remembered that children in the care of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and in Children's Homes, wholly maintained at private expense, are not reported to the Board, and are excluded from the safeguards mentioned. The intention of the Board has been to frame reasonable rules and little or no complaint of them is made. The result of their operation and of the frequent inspection of children's institutions must be materially to keep down the number of inmates.

Certificates of Compliance with the Rules of the Board are furnished monthly to the institutions, and must be filed with the local disbursing officer before payment of the claims for maintenance. The remedy the Board has in reserve for any infraction of the rule is to withhold the Certificate, but such procedure is seldom necessary.

VII.

"Approve plans and specifications for new buildings and improvements for the charitable institutions in the several counties of the State."

A Standing Committee on Construction of Buildings, considers in detail plans and specifications for all new county almshouse or hospital buildings. Consequently, such buildings have been, since 1895, when the Board was entrusted with this power, of modern and approved design and construction. But the Board lacked authority

to pass upon the sites of county buildings, and some have been badly located, both from the economic and artistic points of view. By a law of 1899 it is provided, however, that no new site for an almshouse shall be selected without the approval of the Board.

Very useful powers not yet conferred upon the Board would be those of approving the sites of such new State charitable and reformatory institutions as may in future be established and of approving the plans and specifications for their buildings. The results should be much more satisfactory than the present illogical custom of selection of sites by special commissions appointed by the Governor in each case—the members of which are seldom familiar with the existing State charitable institutions, or the needs of such, and have in times past frequently been appointed to further some local or selfish interest.

Plans and specifications for new buildings and improvements for the State charitable and reformatory institutions were formerly subject to the approval of the Board, but this power was taken away for political reasons, and rests in a special commission of State officers. It should be restored to the Board in the public interest, and the sites and plans and specifications of all charitable institutions, intended to be used in whole or in part for public charges, might wisely be subject also to the Board's approval.

VIII.

"Issue an order in the name of the people, if it appears that the inmates of the institutions have been improperly treated, or that inadequate provision is made for their care, directed to the proper officers or managers requiring them to modify such treatment, or apply such remedy, or both, as therein specified."

Before such an order is issued, it requires the approval of a justice of the Supreme Court, and any person who wilfully refuses to obey the same shall, upon conviction, be adjudged guilty of a misdemeanor.

This provision of the State Charities law of 1896 is intended to equip the Board with power to enforce obedience to the recommendations it may make as the result of investigations. It is gratifying to record the fact that the Board has never yet been obliged to resort to this drastic method to secure the reform sought.

Under several statutes, the Attorney-General and the District At-

torneys of the several counties of the State are required to assist the Board as its counsel in legal proceedings whenever desired to do so, and their co-operation is often thus availed of and from time to time the opinion of the Attorney-General is asked, and his advice followed, in the performance of other duties.

IX.

"License persons or corporations to place out children, empowering such licensees to place out destitute children."

Chapter 264, Laws of 1898, commonly called the Placing Out Law, conferred this additional power upon the Board and authorized it to revoke licenses on reasonable notice. The Board was also authorized to visit any child placed out by any of its licensees. In accordance with the provisions of this law, five licenses for the placing out of children have been issued, two in 1901, one in 1902, and two in 1904. No license has as yet been revoked.

About eight hundred children are placed out annually by institutions and public officers, and an inspector of the Board is employed in visiting the foster homes. Whenever it appears that a child has been unsuitably placed, report is immediately made to the responsible institution, or officer, with request that the child be forthwith removed. The present staff of inspectors is not sufficient to enable the Board to follow up every minor ward of the State wherever placed, but with a better public understanding of the value of this new work will come the means to conduct it satisfactorily.

X

"License Dispensaries, make rules for their government, and revoke their licenses for cause, after opportunity to be heard."

This power was reposed in the Board by statute in 1899, on the urgent appeal of the Medical Society of the State, and other medical bodies, and should in future enable the restriction of the number of dispensaries to the reasonable demands of the sick poor of any neighborhood. Abuses growing out of the management of dispensaries have been the subject of discussion in this country and abroad for many years. This is the first instance in which power has been conferred upon a State Board, not only to license dispensaries, but also to make rules and regulations for their manage-

ment, and enforce compliance with them, through the power of revocation of license.

The results have been favorable both as regards the character of the new dispensaries and the management of those in existence when this law took effect.

Hearings are given on applications for a license, and the procedure usual on applications for certificates of incorporation is followed. One hundred and thirty dispensaries are now operating in the State of New York, of which number one hundred and two are in the metropolitan district of the city of New York. Although not usually in receipt of public money, all dispensaries are inspected by the Board, under special provisions of the Dispensary Law of 1899.

Surely there can be no more appropriate assemblage than this for the presentation of an argument for the establishment in other States of Boards of Charities, with similar powers to those which from time to time bestowed by the people of the State of New York upon its State Board of Charities have been shown by the test of forty years' experience to be both necessary and reasonable.

The first volume of the proceedings of this Conference records the fact that it was called into being in 1874, when representatives of the Boards of Public Charities in New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, Wisconsin, Connecticut, Rhode Island and Kansas met for conference in the city of New York, May 20-22. And it is a pleasure to note that the records state that the chairman of the meeting was Hon. John V. L. Pruyn, of Albany, the first president of the New York State Board of Charities. Credit is due to these State Boards for the useful results of their far-sighted experiment. They united to provide a national forum in which, on common ground, questions dealing with pauperism and crime, and other sociological topics, might be considered. This conference, in which twenty-nine State Boards are represented, with its large and influential membership, is the fruit of the seed then planted.

We have seen that nine State Boards organized this Conference. Let the Conference in turn use its influence for the establishment in every State of Boards of Charities, with similar powers to those now exercised by the New York Board, in order that adequate State supervision may protect the unfortunate citizens of every State who are the objects of organized charity and safeguard the

expenditure of public and private funds alike contributed for their support. Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, South Carolina, Texas and Virginia, now containing each more than one million inhabitants, have as yet no State Boards of Charities. Let us endeavor to remedy this omission and not only hope for, but work to hasten the time when every State of the Union shall have its well organized Department of Charities, and when all of them shall be represented in this body.

THE FUNCTION OF A STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

BY L. A. ROSING, MEMBER OF THE STATE BOARD OF CONTROL OF MINNESOTA.

During the session of 1901 the Legislature of Minnesota repealed the laws establishing boards for the control and management of the various State institutions, and in the place of these boards created a State Board of Control for their government.

Until that time the various institutions had been managed by boards local in their nature, supervised by an advisory commission called the State Board of Corrections and Charities. This Advisory Board had a Secretary who became the governing agent, in fact, and his judgment was largely followed by that board. Under the old system the State institutions were regarded as local, and one member of the governing board was always appointed from the "institution town," thus insuring a government in harmony with local prejudices and local feeling, the member residing in the community having more power, in fact, than the balance of the members. Under the new system, with a board which regards the interests of the institutions as a whole, the institutions have been delocalized and are State institutions not only in name, but in fact.

As stated above, in 1901 the State Board of Control was created, and there was given into its charge the three hospitals and two asylums for the insane, the State Prison, the Reformatory, the Training School for Boys and Girls, the School for Feeble-Minded and Colony for Epileptics, and the financial management of the School for the Blind, School for the Deaf and State Public School. In addition to the management of these institutions, all the duties of the Board of Corrections and Charities devolved upon the Board of Control, thereby establishing a body dual in its character; execu-

tive in that it had full and complete control of the institutions named, and advisory as to county charities and penal institutions.

The system which was superseded contemplated the selection of high-class men, of altruistic purpose, who should govern the various institutions without any recompense. These men were largely true to their duties, but necessarily had to devote as brief a time as possible to the public, as they were engaged in active business life for themselves. Those who advocated the Board of Control system claimed that they could not get the best or most harmonious work performed by these men constituting these local boards as charity work was not their business, but wholly a side activity.

The Board of Control, on the other hand, consisted of three men appointed for six years at a fair salary, and the law directs that they shall devote their whole time to the work of managing the institutions named and performing the duties laid upon them by law.

Among these duties is the selection of executive officers of the various institutions, and in such selection party politics is to be ignored entirely. The executive officers of the institutions are further empowered to employ all subordinates necessary for the proper conduct of such institutions without recommendation or interference by the board. Hence under the Board of Control system I believe that party politics has been entirely eliminated from the institutions of Minnesota. This is the state of perfection in management aimed at by all governing bodies, and achieved by but few.

The board further fixes the salaries of these executive officers, and prepares a salary and wage scale for all the institutions, which is to be as uniform as possible for similar work. This wage scale is necessarily maximum in its direction to the superintendents, and they are allowed to pay such sum as in their judgment the employe is capable of earning, up to the maximum so fixed.

The law further directs that the system of bookkeeping at the various institutions shall be as uniform as possible, and duplicates of the books are kept at the office of the Board of Control, that they may be in a position to compare the expenditures of one institution with the expenditures of the other of the same class, and so as to make it convenient to have these books, accounts and vouchers examined by the Public Examiner of the State, who must conduct such examination at least once a year and oftener, if need be, under direction of the Governor.

It is the duty of the board to make such recommendations in re-

gard to legislation as may be deemed expedient, and I am glad to say that the recommendations for legislation made in regard to charitable and penological subjects by the board have generally met with the approval of the Legislature.

In other words, in this State the board has succeeded in establishing itself in the confidence of the public, and consequently in the confidence of its representatives when assembled as a Legislature.

The board is further directed to study the questions of charity and penology from the broadest standpoint and to disseminate such information to the public generally, and for this purpose it has been deemed advisable to hold quarterly meetings of the superintendents of the various institutions that they may give their experience and an account of their study, as well, at these meetings in the form of papers, followed by general discussion of the subject. These papers and discussions will, from now on, be published in pamphlet form every quarter, so that the public may derive that benefit to which it is entitled from such discussion.

Charitable and penological work is a matter of growth, as are other subjects, and the stand taken today may be subject to modification as a result of further study and greater experience. These publications will, therefore, show growth from time to time. These papers are not dogmatic or final, but show accurately and truthfully the mental growth of the superintendents and the managing authority at this time.

The inauguration of the Board of Control system was fraught with much trouble, much criticism, and there was much opposition, but gradually this system has worked itself into the confidence of the public. Under this system the institutions are made to harmonize with one another. The same minds that control one control the others; hence the dependents, delinquents and defectives are treated as a whole more fully than would be the case under the single or local board system. For example, the board has charge of the Training School, the Reformatory and the Prison, and where crime is progressive in any one individual, they have an opportunity to observe that individual in his relation to society and to the various penal institutions under their control. There is greater opportunity to differentiate between the weak or feeble-minded and the person who is really insane, and to place such individual in the proper institution. In fact, the management being vested in one board, and all these institutions being under its immediate charge,

there is greater opportunity to survey the whole field and make one institution the handmaid of the other.

In the matter of dollars and cents for the immediate supervision and management of these various institutions, the Board of Control system will not show any immediate economy, but by buying for them as a whole rather than for each institution separately, by managing them as a whole rather than as separate institutions, by regarding each institution as part of the whole system of caring for those who can not care for themselves and necessarily must be a burden on the social organization, a central board can do better work than can scattered organizations. The work will be more thoroughly articulated as a result of central management.

So far I have been speaking entirely of the executive and managerial duties of the board. In addition it is the duty of the board, as stated by statute, to "investigate the whole system of public charities and all charitable and correctional institutions in the State, especially prisons, jails, infirmaries, public hospitals and asylums, and examine their condition and management."

The statute, in speaking of public hospitals, has been construed by the Attorney General to mean all hospitals receiving patients. Thus the word "public" does not confine this work to institutions conducted by municipalities or other public corporations, but includes hospitals of every kind and nature.

The duty laid upon the board is very broad, indeed; as broad as any that law ever laid upon a Board of Charities and Correction. It becomes its duty to examine into lockups and their general fitness for the confinement of the minor offenders of our villages and cities, to examine the jails of the various counties, to examine the plans for lockups, jails and poorhouses, to examine all places for the reception and detention of children, and to issue licenses for such purpose if the institution shall be found right; to investigate homes where complaint may be made in regard to such children's being placed in improper homes, to order the removal of such child if the home shall be found improper, to decide between counties as to the residence of a dependent. In a word, this board is responsible, to a certain extent, for the proper administration of all charitable and penal work wherever located within the borders of the State.

Since the passage of the laws above enumerated the field of the duties of this board has been considerably broadened, and much work has been added. A hospital for incipient cases of con-

sumption has been established at Walker, Minnesota, on a tract of some seven hundred acres of land purchased for that purpose, which will be opened October 1 of this year. A superintendent has been employed who has had a number of years' experience in institutions of this character. Provision has been made for a system of detention hospitals located at the various State hospitals; an asylum for the dangerous insane, to which persons accused of crime may be committed; a Hospital Farm for Inebriates; also the establishment of an Industrial School for Girls and a Hospital for Indigent Crippled and Deformed Children; and last, but not least, an act was passed providing for the appointment of State agents for the care of the insane after their discharge from the institutions.

Under this board is employed an agent who is responsible for the supervision of men who have been inmates of the Reformatory and State Prison, their proper conduct while on parole, and their return to the institution if they shall overstep the bounds of the parole regulations.

We also have a deportation agent for the insane, whose duty it is to deport all persons found to be insane who have not established a residence in this State, whether such persons live in other States or in foreign countries.

The magnitude of the duties of this board may be estimated when I make the statement that we had at the close of the last fiscal year 6,569 inmates at the various State institutions directly under our charge, and 544 at the various institutions over which we had financial charge. We expended for the support of the first class $1,116,987.46, erecting new buildings during the year for them to an amount of $254,584.33; in all $1,371,571.79. For the support of institutions under our financial control we expended $136,071.43, and for the erection of new buildings $27,214.05; in all $163,285.48. We expended for new buildings for the educational institutions $255,642.30, and for fuel $31,823.34. It is the duty of this board to place insurance, buy the fuel and erect the new buildings for the educational institutions of the State. The fire insurance premiums for three years on all the State institutions amount to about $100,000.00.

These, in brief, are the functions of a State Board of Control as they have been developed by the Minnesota Board.

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

MR. JOHNSON—We can not but be much impressed by the tremendous organization for purposes of charity and correction of the State of New York. It by no means follows that because a system, which is well adapted to the State of New York, is not adopted by the State of Wyoming or the State of South Dakota, that they are not doing the wisest thing in choosing some other system. At the same time I never want to be present when the question of State Boards of Control and State Boards of Charities is brought up without testifying to the fact that they are two entirely different bodies, having two entirely different things to do, and if you want one kind of work done, you must have one kind of a board to do it, and if you want the other kind of work done, you must have the other kind of a board to do it. I don't believe it ever has been found possible to combine these two separate functions in the same board. Now the peculiar work that a Board of State Charities is fitted for in such a State as the one that I have the pleasure of living in, is extremely valuable and necessary. It may not be necessary in South Dakota. I don't know whether it is or not. I attended a State Conference of Charities in South Dakota quite recently and I was impressed with the fact that that sort of work was necessary. It is not only that the Board of State Charities exercises advisory authority over the various institutions, but it is that the Board of Charities acts as a medium between the institutions and the general public; that the Board of State Charities keeps the general public advised of the condition of their institutions, and gives the institutions the broad support of the intelligent public opinion of the State. As far as I have been able to judge that is not done by a Board of Control. I think very likely that were I a member of a State Board of Control I should feel that we were doing our work and doing it properly, and the public should have confidence in us and not want to know too much and not want to meddle with our institutions. But I have had some years' experience as superintendent of an institution and realize the value of the kindly oversight that the State Board of Charities can exercise. If a Board of Control can manage to do that important work, well and good, but I have not seen that it is being done in States having Boards of Control.

DR. OWEN COPP, Massachusetts—There is one essential difference between a Board of Control and a Board of Supervision. The first possesses arbitrary powers, the second does not. I have been delighted in all my conversations with members of different Boards of Control to hear that, although they have such powers, they forbear to use them. This is wise and right, but is it safe to entrust absolute authority to a few persons who *may* and who *will*, under special circumstances, use it?

Two main principles should be observed in the management of every public charity: first, there should be one responsible head in control of local administration, the Board of Control exemplifies this principle alone; secondly, the acts of such a head should be reviewed by some supervisory authority.

A Board of Supervision should have authority to investigate, to recom-

mend, to gather information, to arrange it in comparative form, and to keep each institution under its supervision informed of the doings of every other. It is supplementary to a Board of Control, and would give balance and safety to the system.

The Board of Control formulates its plans according to its own ideas and may put them in operation without due consideration. The addition of a board of supervision compels deliberation, by which unwise projects are held up or modified.

The abolition of local boards of supervision tends to narrow the circle of persons interested in the insane. It is my observation that the general public knows little about them and takes little spontaneous interest in them. Even members of boards of trustees at the time of their appointment have no adequate knowledge of the work they are undertaking. They soon, however, become informed and interested. They are numerous, scattered all over the State. They become centers of information, and in times of criticism, sponsors for the good administration of the institutions. They touch many sources of influence, and are able to safeguard against the exercise of arbitrary powers and against politics.

Mr. C. E. Faulkner, Minneapolis—We in Minnesota may congratulate ourselves that we are to realize the ideals of thorough business methods, without sacrifice of altruistic principles, and thus deserve the approval of our good friends of the older States who are satisfied with their methods.

The Board of Control policy stands well in public esteem, and there is no disposition to return to the old order of local boards.

In order to safeguard every interest the last legislature provided for a State Board of Visitors to serve without pay other than actual expenses incurred in the line of duty, and from the character of the appointees, the experiment promises well. There is no doubt whatever but that Minnesota has her public institutions fairly well insured against the accidents of political interference, and will be keen to discover, and quickly responsive to the duty of putting into practice those policies best suited to her conditions, and the welfare of those affected by them.

Mr. G. S. Robinson, Iowa—It is true that a system of management which works well in one State may not be adapted to another. The single Board of Control may be suited to such States as Minnesota, Iowa and many others, and not be adapted to the great State of New York with its larger population and more diversified interests. The comparison as to efficiency is not usually made between such a board as that described in the paper by the gentleman from New York and the single State Board of Control, but between the latter and the old system of controlling each institution by its own board of trustees or managers. As between these two systems there is no question in my mind as to which is the better. The local board is usually composed of active and intelligent business men who give attention to the business of the institution only when together. They meet a few times each year. register the will of the superintendent and depart. They know but little of the institution and their minds are chiefly occupied with their own affairs. While the bill to establish a board of control

was pending in Iowa all the heads of institutions who would be affected by it protested against the passage of this bill, and their arguments were summed up here tonight by Dr. Copp. A few years later, however, after having become familiar with the workings of the Board of Control, every one of those heads of institutions retracted what he had said in opposition to the Board of Control plan and heartily approved it.

It has been said that the Board of Control is arbitrary—that it has arbitrary powers. I wish the gentlemen had enumerated some of those arbitrary acts and powers. In Iowa, and the same is true in this State, the Board has the power to appoint heads of institutions, but no power to appoint any subordinate, and a request by any member of the board that any particular person be appointed would be a misdemeanor. No member of the board has any right to ask any officer or employe of any institution under the control of the board to support any candidate for office or contribute money to any political party, and this is true of all heads of such institutions in the State of Iowa. It is a crime in that State to solicit contributions for political purposes from any officer or employe of these institutions. The result is the institutions are entirely out of politics. Of the seven or eight new superintendents appointed since I became a member of the Board of Control I did not know the political preference of one when the appointment was made. So far as I know the Boards of Control do not have arbitrary power, not nearly so much as was possessed by the local boards which were superseded.

The members of the Board of Control do precisely the kind of advisory work advocated here. They visit each institution frequently and confer with its head and others in regard to its needs. The knowledge obtained of or for one institution is valuable for others of a similar character. The result is a wider knowledge of those things important to know and to do in the management of State institutions than is possible under the plan of separate management by special boards.

I have conversed with a superintendent of one of our State institutions who was for years at the head of a similar institution in another State which had a State Board of Charities, like those of which we have heard tonight. The efficiency of that particular board has been commended frequently at meetings of this conference. But from the superintendent referred to I learn that the inspections of that board and the supervision it exercised were but slight as compared with what is done by the Iowa Board of Control. During the five or six years he was at the head of the institution under the State Board of Charities, but one, or at most two, visits were made by any of its members. Under the Board of Control system in Iowa, and I suppose in other States having that system, the visits to each institution are frequent and each member of the board knows a great deal more of all the institutions under the control of the board than any member of the old local boards ever knew. The system in Iowa, as in this State, met great opposition at first, but that opposition soon died out as the workings of the system showed its value.

Supervision of the Board of Control has been mentioned. The Board in Iowa would not object to any proper investigation or supervision of its

work, although there has not been any demand for it there except for the regular inspection of its accounts and the visits of legislative committees. The Governor may inspect them at any time, although he rarely does so.

I wish to refer briefly to the powers of the Board of Control of Iowa with respect to county and private institutions in which insane persons are kept. This power is to inspect and to correct abuses when found, and has resulted in great benefit to the institutions named. For example, our inspectors have told us that in county institutions the departments for the insane, over which we have jurisdiction, are frequently found to be in much better condition than are the departments for the poor in the same institutions, over which we have no power. I am heartily in favor of State supervision of these public and semi-public charities and of the management of county institutions for the poor.

General Roeliff Brinkerhoff—I have been familiar with the questions of the Boards of Control and Boards of Charity for many years, and I have been a member of the Board of State Charities of Ohio for a little over twenty-nine years. I have visited institutions of every State in the Union except one, and I think I am familiar with the workings of them. Now here in the State of Minnesota and in the State of Iowa the Boards of Control have done admirable work. I am willing to admit that. Yet, as has been stated here tonight, in the nature of things, the Board of State Control with its arbitrary powers in a State as large as Iowa, at least, it is absolutely impossible to have the knowledge that they ought to have. Now in our State we have a purely advisory board. Each institution has a separate board of five or six members. Now I do not see how, if I was a member of a Board of Control, I could have any real knowledge of individual institutions. Look at the institutions of Ohio. Why, I try to know all about them, and our Board visits them every year, by committees, and our Secretary is familiar with all the different Boards, but I do not see how it is possible to visit each one of these institutions often enough to make ourselves familiar with it. In our State the trustees of the different institutions meet monthly, and visit the institutions and know all about them. They advise with the superintendent, and know all the individual needs. We do not wish for arbitrary power; we want to act purely in an advisory condition and make ourselves familiar with each institution and know what ought to be done, and to meet the superintendent and discuss the matter with him. If we find a change is needed in the institution we talk with him privately, we argue the matter with him, and nine times in ten he adopts our views. After twenty-nine years of study and practice in these institutions, I am decidedly in favor of the advisory board and opposed to a Board of Control as such.

Mr. H. C. Bowman, Kansas—The first thing it seemed to me that was brought out is this, that the two systems, Boards of Control and Boards of Charities, are not necessarily inconsistent or antagonistic to each other. In the management and control of State institutions there are two phases: the business side and the professional side. In operating the business side you want men of business experience who will devote their whole time to it.

You want to have a central office where a private citizen can go and see just what is going on. You want to have a man who understands the markets, and who buys for all the institutions as a whole. There should be business in institutions just as in business life. Then there is the professional side, and that can be handled by men who devote all their time and make a study of it rather than men who serve without pay and are only indirectly interested. Now, a Board that will devote its whole time to the management and control of State Instituions, is the kind of a Board you want from any business point of view. You want, also, to have a Board of Charities to supervise and look over things and inform the public. I cannot see where there is any particular antagonism in the two systems. But there is an antagonism between the local boards and between the Boards of Control idea. Now, Kansas has tried all of the systems. In this discussion the peculiar thing that you will notice is that every state that has a Board of Charity system sticks by that system, but that every State that has tried that system and then tried the Board of Control afterwards, stands by the Board of Control system, together with a sort of committee connecting with the Board of Charities. In 1873 Kansas did away with the local boards, and provided that not a single member could come from the county where the institution was located. They did away with all the boards and created the Board of Charities and Corrections that had the power to manage and control. Then they created another board of six persons to supervise this. They ran along that way for three years and then did away with the Board of Supervision. In 1901 they cut the board from six to five, and in 1905 they created an office at the capital and added that feature to it. Now in Kansas we have charge of all the home finding societies and the supervision of placing children in homes. Next we have charge of all the insane hospitals—that is, supervision. Then we have charge of the nine State institutions. Connected with us, however, are two ladies, appointed by the Governor, to visit the institutions and report direct to him, and who file a copy of their report in our office for public inspection.

Mr. L. C. Storrs, Michigan—It seems to me I have got a duty to perform, and if I may be permitted I would first like to congratulate our friend, Mr. Faulkner, in becoming a resident of a State that fell in with his idea in that minority report. Now there are some pretty broad assertions made here. The last speaker told about States adopting the Board of Control.

Michigan once changed its long established system of institution boards, and had a Board of Control two years, and that was as long as the State could stand it. Now, in regard to what our friend, Mr. Robinson, says, I wish that he could visit with me some of our State asylums. Every month the members of these boards meet at their respective asylums, and every month there is a sub-committee appointed by such boards to visit every ward and every hall. Less than a year ago I was at one of our asylums, and in the evening a member of the board who was there said to me: "Storrs, let's go and see what is going on inside the asylum tonight." He had his own pass key, and we

passed from hall to hall to see what the night men were doing, and whether they were caring for the patients as they should; whether they were looking after those who needed night supervision. In regard to politics we have not any of it in our State institutions in Michigan. You all of you have heard Mrs. Sickels since you have been here, and all of you doubtless admire her and the work she is doing. She was appointed by one of the only Democratic boards that Michigan has had in thirty years. Two years afterwards the Republican Governor came in again, and she, with some other superintendents who had been appointed by Democratic boards, was retained because she was fitted for the place. At the largest asylum in our State we had a superintendent who was assessed for funds about election time by the State Central Committee. He reported the fact to his board. His board at once passed a resolution prohibiting his donating anything to the party and making it a rule that any man or employe in that asylum who donated to a campaign fund should be discharged, and though every man on that board was a Republican, and we had a Republican Governor, still they did not allow anything of that kind in the institution. Now my own board, of course, is simply a Board of Supervision. In the organic law of my board it is provided that the State Board of Charities in Michigan shall in no way interfere with the internal workings of any State Institution. We supervise them, but we have no authority to dictate in detail what they shall do in the different State institutions, but we advise them, and we try to advise them in such a way that the boards will feel that the suggestions are their own, which is generally a nice policy.

MR. D. C. THOMAS, South Dakota—It seems to me that the whole difficulty is that the friends of the two causes are looking at different sides of the question. It is self-evident that a man whose time is all devoted to a business can do it better than anybody else. If you are going tomorrow to get a physician or a lawyer you would get one who is in practice and not an immature one of either kind. Now, in this business the financial, purely business end of it, and the altruistic part of it, should be done by men in the business. It seems to me that the great State of New York ought to divide its altruism up a great deal finer than it has. It should be specialized. The same Board of Charities ought not to look after so many kinds of charity, but have specialists for each line. In our little State of South Dakota we can not specialize much. We have the institutions under what is called a Board of Charities and Corrections, but is really a Board of Control. The law requires that board to meet every month in every one of the institutions. That board as constituted in our State knows one hundred times more about every one of those institutions than the local boards did when they were in fashion. The board has not got too much to do. It could do a little more. In addition to that we have a still more altruistic board. We are ahead of Minnesota. We have got a Woman's Board, which is required to go in twice a year, and look from cellar to garret, and report directly to the Governor, so you see there is model supervision as well as control. Now I believe,

gentlemen, that the State of Minnesota and the State of Iowa, with the amount of work that they have to do, are looking after the business of charities and corrections and the financial work of the State better than any other States in the Union, and we intend to hang on to their coat-tails pretty close as long as they behave themselves as well as they do now. We have not as many people in our State as in the twin cities, I guess, and it is not a very big job for three men to look after both sides of it. We are a chosen people, elected under the natural law that pushes the fittest out to the border line, consequently we have very little to do, and we don't find much trouble. We do try to educate the public mind in our State, and I think that is what we ought to do, because as a rule the public knows very little about its institutions.

Mr. Hebberd, New York—The State of New York presents an entirely different problem from that of Minnesota. With six thousand persons under State care, it is very different from two hundred thousand people who are in institutions of different kinds. The State Board of Charities has nearly sixteen hundred associations and societies which, by the Constitution, were intended to be under its direct supervision. Add to this the penal institutions of the State, the great number of institutions for the insane, and we have between two and three thousand institutions alone which should be subjected to the closest kind of supervision and inspection. The two important powers given by the Constitution to the State Board are those which empower it to inspect and report. Inspection means a critical close examination into all departments, and report is the power of appeal to the public through the legislature and through the press. It is the power of publicity which is at the root of all progress, and will determine what the course of the institutions of the State shall be. Granted this is so, in any new commonwealth I am certain that public spirit will be so aroused that the public will attack the special problems in a satisfactory manner. It will educate the business side as to Boards of Control, and it will place above them, subjecting them to criticism, the supervisory power which is so essential to keep the people in close acquaintance with every detail of the public business.

VAGRANCY IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY ORLANDO F. LEWIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF JOINT APPLICATION BUREAU OF THE C. O. S. AND A. I. C. P., NEW YORK.

A NATIONAL PROBLEM.

Vagrancy in the United States is a national problem. Thus far its treatment has been almost always local. The vagrant is the most elusive of all applicants for charity; in consequence, charitable aid for the vagrant has generally taken the form of woodyards, wayfarers' lodges, municipal lodging houses and missions. The vagrant's crimes are petty, and often not discovered; as a result both courts and citizens have looked upon him more as a nuisance or as a pitiable object, than as a criminal or a potential malefactor. He has been "moved on," or committed to jail for a few days with little labor, if any, or he has wintered in the workhouse or almshouse. Emphatic testimony from all parts of our country shows that often not even good palliative measures have been applied to vagrancy; with rare exceptions far-reaching plans of treatment are still to be evolved.

The cumulative testimony collected in the pages of the appendix to this paper is proof of the national significance of this problem. Railroads representing more than half the total mileage operated in the United States and Canada testify almost without exception to depredations, thieving, injuries, deaths, accidents to passengers or rolling stock, enormous aggregate costs to railroads or society, caused by the habitual illegal use of railroads by vagrants. The railroads attribute this vagrancy plague, not to any inherent defect in our industrial system, but to unenforced or inadequate laws, and point to the absence of railway trespassing abroad.

The question of vagrancy has concerned England and European countries for many years. England, with an army of the unemployed, and with time-worn treatment of vagrancy by casual ward, workhouse and short-term sentence, has recently received the recommendations of its Vagrancy Commission, which, after months of investigation in England and in Continental countries, has reported to both Houses of Parliament that present methods of treating vagrancy should be co-ordinated, strengthened on the side of repression, and supplemented by the establishment of compulsory labor colonies. In Germany, a generation ago, the prevalence of

vagrancy and begging precipitated questions similar to those we are now asking, at least in some of our eastern States; as a result, way-stations were established for wayfarers, home inns for "over night," and volunteer farm colonies for more permanent treatment.

OUR PRESENT METHODS.

Our present methods err in being neither sufficiently repressive to the vagrant by intention, nor sufficiently helpful to the accidental wayfarer. We are loth to punish severely for fear of doing injustice, but we hesitate to offer much aid, for fear of being duped. The public in general, vacillating between emotional sympathy for the apparently unfortunate, and a recurrent suspicion as to the innocence of the "victim of circumstances," is prone to let the poor fellow move on per "side-door Pullman," sleep in parks because he is without a place to lay his head, lodge in disease-breeding, vermin-infested ten-cent lodging houses, because the "poorest man has a right to purchase his own shelter and not depend on charity," and, in the largest cities, make the rounds of the missions and the breadlines, "because he may be starving." Society has learned how the other half lives; it has still to appreciate to what extent it permits the "down and outer" to become unsocial, grow idle, suffer maiming on freight car trucks, become a social parasite and outcast, and die a friendless death. Charitable societies have circularized communities with the necessary message that it is an injustice to the beggar to aid him at the door or on the street. Yet little permanent success has been achieved in the treatment of the homeless that have come to our charitable societies. At a recent National Conference, the "vagrant givers" were admonished as to the part they play in the making of the vagrant by the indiscriminate giving of alms. Yet how little, comparatively, has the amount of street giving been diminished!

THE WAY OF REFORM.

Let us then recognize the evident fact that although our woodyards, lodges, and city lodging houses are good and necessary as temporary means of relief, they do not materially diminish the national army of trampers. Sporadic efforts to reduce vagrancy, however well these efforts are conducted, simply drive the work-shy vagrant to the next haven of leisure or land of plenty. To attack

vagrancy effectively, the main principles of a consistent program must be followed by all communities. During the last two years, Massachusetts has waged an effective vagrancy campaign, because the entire State has been made the unit of activity. In consequence, the number of vagrants in Massachusetts has diminished remarkably; but probably there are now more vagrants in contiguous States. No city or State can live unto itself alone in a thorough treatment of vagrancy. New York City has recently adopted excellent lodging house regulations, which will increase the price of the cheapest beds. Yet in the absence of a mendicancy squad in New York City, vagrants can still ply their trade in New York, and commute by ferry to the unsupervised ten-cent lodging houses across the river in Hoboken, Jersey City and Newark.

PREVENTION.

It is now an axiom in charitable and correctional work that an ounce of wisely attempted prevention is worth a pound of attempted cure. There are two groups of preventive measures directed against vagrancy. The measures in the first group seek to prevent the individual from becoming a vagrant. In this group are such well-organized movements for the preservation of home, health and happiness as tenement-house reform, the child labor movement, and the campaign for small parks and playgrounds, all diminishing potential vagrancy. The second group of preventive measures, which I desire now to outline, endeavors to diminish vagrancy itself, by rendering it harder and more uncomfortable to be a vagrant than to be a worker. These preventive measures are based on two principles: (1) the able-bodied vagrant must work for what he receives; (2) the punishment of intentional vagrancy must be so severe and so conspicuous as to act as a strong deterrent.

1. *Vagrancy laws should be enforced if adequate, amended if inadequate.* Vagrants may be divided into two general classes, the employable and the unemployable. In the first class are two groups: (a) accidental vagrants; (b) habitual vagrants. (a) Accidental vagrants are those tempted by possible work elsewhere, or attacked by "wanderlust," and those temporarily handicapped by accident, illness or unemployment. They are apt to have growing propensities to habitual idleness. For such persons, if able-bodied, work should be available, to deter them from further vagrancy and to tide them over temporarily in their time of need. For those

unable to work, charitable provision is necessary. (b) Habitual vagrants are those idle by intention; such persons need extended punitive and penal treatment.

The second class consists of the unemployable, which include the hopelessly incapable and the incurable. In this class belong the physically and mentally deficient, such as the aged; mentally deficient, and those physically incapable of work. For these there should be permanent care in asylum or almshouse, or custodial care if such persons are unwilling to remain in charitable institutions.

All three classes have in common no abode, no support and no work. These facts do not necessarily justify penal treatment, but they do suggest measures to check the development of the accidental vagrant into the habitual offender. The habitual vagrant in addition to having no abode, no support and no work, has no intention of working. This intention to remain idle should be met by severe repressive measures, such as imprisoment at actual hard labor in jail, workhouse or penitentiary, but better still, by commitment to a compulsory labor colony with indeterminate sentence.

Among our best vagrancy laws are those of Massachusetts, yet these laws fail to distinguish sufficiently the accidental from the intentional vagrant. Vagrancy laws are generally very inclusive, often grouping many human odds-and-ends. Some States classify the tramp as the vagrant's alien brother, implying that the vagrant has a settlement, with consequent claim on the public charity of the community to which the law applies. In these days of rapid transit this is practically a distinction without a difference.

The moving on of arrested vagrants should cease, nor should police neglect to arrest evident offenders. President James J. Hill of the Great Northern writes, "It is the almost universal custom for justices to order vagrants to leave town within twenty-four hours. When all neighborhoods are doing the same thing, the community receives exactly as much refuse as it gets rid of."

2. *Vagrants should be sentenced to hard labor.* The Syracuse Charity Organization Society reports the county penitentiary to be a winter vacation resort for tramps. The constable to whom they deliver themselves up in the fall fees them upon their release in the spring. Their only occupation is stripping willow. At Lawrence, Kansas, the sequence of events is: (1) arrest; (2) fine; (3) sentenced to work on rock pile in lieu of fine; (4) no guard placed over prisoners; (5) vagrants run away; (6) which is what was

intended. In one jail only 10 per cent. of the prisoners are allowed to work. Chiefs of police in 7 out of 31 cities report no work required of convicted vagrants. Most of the work in other cities is likely to be largely "on paper."

3. *Sentences of convicted vagrants should be cumulative.* In 36 cities the predominating minimum sentence is 30 days, average sentence 30 days, and the predominating maximum sentence six months. Such sentences are of little deterrent value, if unaccompanied by hard labor, and especially if the prisoners are to be discharged before the completion of their sentence. Sixty-five per cent. of all prisoners discharged in 1904 from the Philadelphia House of Correction served only one-half their time. Over 57 per cent. of the prisoners had been previously committed to that institution; nearly 10 per cent., 10 or more times; nearly 9 per cent., 20 or more times; 50 persons, 50 or more times; 5 persons, 80 or more times! What must we think of the "House of Correctional" treatment of a human being, which eighty times in succession fails to prevent a recurrence of the condition requiring treatment, and leaves the patient even worse! Nor does the above record show how often its prisoners have been committed to other institutions. What effect on these repeaters would cumulative sentences have of 3 months, 6 months and a year, if accompanied in each instance by hard labor?

4. *Towns lodging vagrants should provide for them a separate house, or if they are lodged at the almshouse, separate and distinct quarters.* The mingling of vagrants with paupers should be forbidden. Able-bodied vagrants, wherever lodged, should be required to render reasonable work in return for food and lodging, which should be adequate. In 1905, Massachusetts adopted laws embodying the above principles. The result was as follows:

In 1905,	89	almhouses	lodged 23,341	vagrants.
In 1906,	61	"	" 7,900	"
In 1905,	17	towns	" 2,711	"
In 1906,	17	"	" 254	"

These figures show a reduction in one year of about 60 per cent. in the number of vagrants lodged in almshouses, and a reduction of more than 90 per cent. in the number of vagrants lodged by towns. The purpose of the laws was to make impossible the herding of vagrants in filthy tramp houses, or lockups, where they slept on planks or straw, and "moved on" in the morning after being fed

on crackers and cheese, or bread and water, for which they generally rendered no labor. It was so evident that the improved accommodations for vagrants prescribed by the new law would prove so expensive, and the required sanitary standards of the State Board of Health so embarrassing, that many towns discontinued giving charitable relief to vagrants, either in "tramphouses" or almshouses, and simply arrested all vagrants applying for shelter, sending them to court the next morning.

5. *Vagrants should not be lodged in police stations.* One-third of the cities reporting through their police chiefs still lodge vagrants in police stations, with inadequate accommodations. Jacob Riis's campaign against police station lodgings in New York is well known. The experience of Chicago should be quoted. In 1901 a municipal lodging house was established in that city, and the further use of police stations for the lodging of tramps was forbidden. In 1902 the number of free lodgings given by Chicago to vagrants fell off over 80 per cent., decreasing from 92,591 to 11,097. The superintendent of the Chicago municipal lodging house estimates that in the last five years the municipal lodging house has saved the city over a half million lodgings. The financial saving to the city may not have been considerable, but the value of discontinuing in five years a half million inadequate lodgings cannot be estimated.

6. *A municipal lodging house with work test should be established in all cities having a vagrancy problem.* Such lodging houses prove to be their own excuse for being. They remove the argument for the indiscriminate giving of alms to able-bodied vagrants. The establishment of municipal lodging houses is necessary before the discontinuance of police station lodging can be successfully urged. They furnish to the honest destitute man out of work a temporary shelter, and they deter the vagrant by intention, who dislikes registration and municipal scrutiny. Compulsory baths, fumigation of clothing, sanitary sleeping quarters and adequate food, in return for reasonable labor, serve to educate the public as to the proper temporary treatment of vagrancy. Relief societies find the municipal lodging house a test of earnestness, and an efficient temporary shelter.

The municipal lodging house with no work test fails in large measure to accomplish one of its principal purposes, the education of the vagrant. A municipal lodging house should moreover be in respect to management and sanitary conditions a model for the

common lodging houses of the city. The city cannot well require a standard from common lodging houses that it fails to follow itself. The success of the Chicago Municipal Lodging House in finding casual employment for about 30 per cent. of its lodgers should be a subject for study by other cities, not so successful in this regard. If the city does not maintain, or is not willing to maintain, a municipal lodging house, private charity in that city should maintain a wayfarers' lodge.

7. *Vagrants trespassing on railroads should be arrested and imprisoned at hard labor.* The extent of vagrancy in the United States is at present largely determined by the ease with which vagrants can travel free of charge on railroads. At present there does not seem generally to be such a lack of demand for labor as to force the unemployed to seek work in other localities. The majority of homeless men claiming to seek work are unskilled workmen or men whose habits have caused their lack of employment. American vagrants are not pedestrians. Most American railroads today are thoroughfares for vagrants. If vagrants beating their way on railroads are killed as frequently as are trainmen in proportion to the number traveling, over a half million vagrants ride yearly on American railroads or use the right of way. A figure of such magnitude seems impossible, yet the following facts, prominent in the letters received from railroad officials, indicate the great prevalence of railway trespass.

(a) Most railroads, and especially trunk lines, are much troubled by vagrants, who steal rides, pilfer, rob stations, build fires in box cars, place obstructions on tracks, interfere with signals, stone trains, and at times injure and even kill employes. The New York Central Lines cannot keep vagrants off freight trains, and at times must stop passenger trains to unload them. The Erie says that "any one found upon the tracks of a railroad company without due license should be a marked individual, or the perpetration of the recent Pennsylvania train-wrecking outrages may become too common for the interests of the American public, in whose behalf this recommendation is made."

(b) Co-operation between railroads and town officers in prosecuting is rare in small communities, less infrequent in cities. The Cumberland Valley Railroad must frequently subsidize local constables, and occasionally local justices, to obtain commitments. Some railroads give passes, hoping for reciprocity from city and

county officials. Along the Big Four lines, some town authorities warn vagrants not to get off the trains, and along the C., B. & Q. some town officials even assist tramps aboard trains, to facilitate their departure. The Pennsylvania Railroad and many other trunk lines report that this lack of co-operation is due to the unwillingness of towns to prosecute and maintain in jail, at the town's expense, vagrants who have no claim upon the town. This attitude will undoubtedly exist in most towns until the expenses of conviction and subsequent maintenance of vagrants are borne by the State.

(c) The number of trespassers killed annually on American railroads exceeds the combined total of passengers and trainmen killed annually. From 1901 to 1905, inclusive, 23,964 trespassers were killed and 25,236 trespassers were injured. From one-half to three-quarters of the trespassers were vagrants. The annual totals of the killed and injured show no signs of decreasing.

(d) The cost to railroads of vagrants killed and injured is often considerable; few railroads can give exact figures. Trains stop to pick up the injured and dying, and bear them to hospitals, where the hospital and burial charges must often be guaranteed by the railroads, which state that they feel themselves bound not on legal but on humanitarian grounds. Towns show much unwillingness to assume such expense. The C. & N. W. and the Erie estimate their annual expenditures at several thousand dollars. Many railroads estimate little or no direct expense. A number of suits have been successfully brought against the Illinois Central by vagrants who have been thrown off trains in motion in the course of fights with train crews.

(e) The cumulating cost to society from injured vagrants cannot be estimated, but is evidently enormous. The following record of an application for charitable assistance was made at the Joint Application Bureau on April 22, 1907. "———————— had his left ankle broken last August while stealing a ride on the railroad; was taken to the Memorial Hospital, Oneonta, and later transferred to the county house, where he remained five months; sent then by county authorities as far as Albany, and stole a ride from there to New York on a freight train. He claims that his left ankle was improperly set. Limps, and walks with a cane. Asks aid."

This man is one of some 5,000 vagrants injured on railroads last year. Comment is unnecessary. His story is probably true in the main, and he is likely to be a permanent charge on society. In ad-

dition to vagrants recorded by railroads as injured, there are undoubtedly many thousand others who each year receive injuries not sufficiently serious to prevent their eluding the attention of the railroad or town authorities.

Question 1. How much cheaper would it be for railroads to maintain more railroad policemen, and thereby suffer fewer depredations, thefts, delays to traffic, hospital and burial charges and other expenses?

Question 2. By how much would society be the gainer, were the State to assume the expense of the conviction and maintenance of vagrants, thereby making possible better co-operation between railroads and towns, and reducing railroad vagrancy, injuries, deaths, and the number of crippled public charges?

Question 3. To what extent is society morally culpable in tolerating voluntary self-exposure by vagrants to injury and death on railroads?

(f) Few railroad systems maintain systematic railroad policing. Divisional points, terminals and yards are generally guarded by special agents or watchmen. Some roads maintain several traveling policemen to watch the road and stimulate local officials. The Pennsylvania Railroad maintains a semi-military police force, but nevertheless reports that the 900 vagrants arrested in 1906 for trespassing were but a small part of the total number of vagrants constantly traveling over that road. The Lake Shore Railroad finds it impossible even to try to regulate trespassing. On the Boston & Maine Railroad train employes, appointed as railroad police officers in the States through which they run, deal successfully with vagrants. Vagrants are scarce in New Hampshire because any person may arrest a vagrant, and upon the latter's conviction be entitled to a reward of $10, to be paid by the county.

(g) The principal recommendations made by the railroads are: (1) greater co-operation between towns and railroads in prosecuting and convicting vagrants; (2) imprisonment of convicted vagrants at hard labor for considerable periods; (3) enforcement of trespass laws when adequate; (4) the strengthening of inadequate trespass laws; (5) the adoption of trespass laws, when none exist. The draft of a proposed trespass law, embodying the essentials of the existing Massachusetts law, and suggestions made by the Wabash and the New York Central lines will be found on page 72; (6) national vagrancy laws, if necessary and possible; (7) costs of

prosecution and maintenance of vagrants to be made a State charge; (8) refusal by individuals of "kitchen-door aid" to vagrants; (9) a study of the success of Canada and European countries in prohibiting railroad vagrancy.

Massachusetts has a State police official known as a "tramp officer." Police work in each State should be carried on vigorously against vagrants by four co-operating agencies: (1) railroad police; (2) special State police officers; (3) town police; (4) special mendicancy police officers in large cities.

7 A. *In cities troubled with beggars there should be at least one special mendicancy officer, in plain clothes.* The police of the regular force will make little effort to arrest beggars, who are wary of the sight of a helmet and a blue uniform. The mendicancy officer should be detailed to a competent charitable society. He should have charge of the mendicancy reports of the society; should discriminate in arresting first offenders; should make records of warned and arrested mendicants; should prosecute cases in court; should endeavor to find employment for repentent or discharged mendicants; should maintain a bureau of information on mendicancy; correspond with other cities and charitable societies; keep the press well supplied with news matter on vagrants and mendicants, and in general aid in the repression of mendicancy by individual effort and a constructive program.

The record of the mendicancy squad of the New York Charity Organization Society is illuminating, as shown in the last two annual reports. From July 1, 1904, to September 30, 1905, seven mendicancy officers, detailed to the Charity Organization Society, arrested 1,863 beggars. All policemen in Greater New York, other than the mendicancy squad, arrested in the same period about one-third as many mendicants. The mendicancy squad was discontinued by the police commissioner in February, 1906. New York City streets are now "wide open" to beggars. Mendicancy arrests fell off 50 per cent during 1906. It is difficult to cite a more striking example of false municipal economy.

8. *The Department of Health should prescribe adequate rules governing the maintenance and supervision of common lodging houses.* In our largest cities the common lodging house, with prices of lodgings ranging from 5 cents to 25 cents, is a prominent factor in making vagrants. Conditions in some lodging houses are often indescribably bad. Statements made by Mr. Lies of Chicago and

Mr. Estabrook of Philadelphia regarding houses in those cities can be duplicated in other cities. The vagrant gravitates to the cheap lodging house because it costs him little for a bed, and because he is comparatively free from supervision. Eighty per cent. of the mendicants arrested in New York in 1905 gave lodging house addresses.

The lodging houses are also the resorts of the accidental vagrants. Over half the homeless men applying to our Joint Application Bureau come from the lodging houses; over half of this number are recent arrivals in New York, many of them being young fellows from the country or smaller cities. Even excepting the two Mills Houses, which furnish reasonable accommodations to 800,000 men annually for from 20 cents to 30 cents per night, about 6,000,000 lodgings are annually sold in Greater New York by the common lodging houses at prices ranging from 7 cents to 25 cents a night.

Comprehensive lodging house rules, rigidly enforced, are necessary, if conditions in lodging houses are to be materially bettered. Such rules must provide adequately for three things: ventilation, sanitation and cleanliness. The rules should be specific. The word "adequate" is often very inadequate. Rules should leave themselves as little as possible open to varied interpretation. The recent drafting and adoption of rules by the Board of Health of New York City affords an excellent example of the right kind of cooperation between a public department and private charitable bodies, for the improvement of the city's welfare. The Board of Health, recognizing the long-standing, noxious conditions prevailing in New York lodging houses, invited the Joint Application Bureau, which is maintained by the Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, to study the lodging house problem in New York and elsewhere, and to report its findings in the form of a proposed revision of the rules then governing the maintenance and supervision of lodging houses. It is a pleasure to be able to state that the Board of Health, having received after a number of months the recommendations of the Bureau, has adopted them practically in their entirety, with such amendments, satisfactory to the Bureau, as the experience of the Department found necessary.

These rules, enforced, will decrease the number of beds allowed, a fact which, together with alterations on a rather extensive scale,

will undoubtedly raise the price of beds in the cheapest houses. This fact, under present industrial conditions, does not seem to call for serious criticism. The ten cent bed in the commercial house has long been a menace to health. Essential features of the revised rules are the provisions for: (1) 60 square feet of floor space per bed; (2) daily airing of all rooms; (3) clean sheets and clean pillow cases daily; (4) at least one water-closet on each floor; (5) at least one washroom on each floor, with suitable washing appliances; (6) shower baths or tub baths; (7) hot and cold water supplied at all hours, free of charge; (8) cleanliness of water-closets, washrooms and bathrooms; (9) daily scrubbing or wet-sweeping of all floors; (10) a sufficient supply of cuspidors; (11) severe penalty for failure to comply with notification from the Department of Health of the violation of rules.

9. *Lodging houses maintained by charitable bodies should be models of their class.* No charitable body can afford to maintain a lodging house that justifies reasonable criticism. In the past, some of the Salvation Army's lodging houses have been subjected, with much reason, to the criticism that their standard was no better than that of commercial lodging houses, charging the same prices. Many of these lodging houses were probably established by the Salvation Army with the sincere purpose of helping unfortunate men. Experience has, however, proved that it is bad spiritual or practical economy to reduce prices, or run a lodging house at a loss, if such reduction of prices brings with it dirt, disease or physical demoralization. Spiritual and material regeneration must go hand in hand; cleanliness accompanies godliness.

It is gratifying to note that the reports from charitable societies in several cities, where last year the Salvation Army lodging houses met with criticism, indicate decided improvements in such houses, or their discontinuance in favor of new houses. In Boston, the People's Palace, recently opened by the Salvation Army, is a lodging house for men, resembling in many respects a well-equipped Y. M. C. A. building, the minimum price of rooms being 25 cents a night. The Salvation Army has here suggested what, it seems to me, might well be its policy from now on. It should not continue to maintain any houses that do not provide thoroughly satisfactory sanitary conditions for its lodgers, and its new houses should be the best of their class. The Army has its own models in the well-appointed and well-conducted S. A. Hotel in Chatham Square, New York, and in the People's Palace in Boston.

10. *Missions giving food or lodgings to destitute men should require in return a reasonable amount of work, except in special cases.* Some missions rarely give material relief, some maintain lodging houses with work tests, some give lodgings and meals freely without requiring labor in return. Fifty-one cities out of 80 report no missions or breadlines. The mission's function is the spiritual regeneration of the homeless man. Any charitable methods that render a large proportion of the recipients hypocritical or slothful are evidently wrong. The fact that such charity may be offered in the name of the church does not alter the results. The undesirable features of indiscriminate "midnight suppers," "Sunday breakfasts" or bed tickets have been clearly proven. Fortunately, breadlines exist only in a few of our largest cities. They give entirely inadequate relief, teach idleness, foster the "something-for-nothing" spirit, gather habitual vagrants, and mislead the public. The breadlines are in no sense emergency measures for the relief of the unemployed. In the winters of 1905 and 1906, our Joint Application Bureau distributed along the breadlines, in lodging houses, and on the Bowery, 47,000 cards, assuring the bearer of temporary work upon application at the Bureau. Less than 700 men responded, representing not 2 per cent. of the the cards distributed.

The mission has a distinct place in charitable work for the homeless, in conveying religious stimulus to overcome temptation, a field purposely avoided by most charitable societies. To use meal tickets and bed tickets to attract "down and outers" may result in occasional actual converts; the practice certainly results in creating so-called "mission rounders," in fostering mawkish, hypocritical testimony, in antagonizing relief societies, and in clouding the vision of the mission leaders themselves. Charitable societies should urge, not that missions cease entirely to give financial relief, but that such relief be given only when warranted by exceptional circumstances. Missions and charitable societies should endeavor to maintain an effective co-operation, under which plan the mission, unless it conduct a labor test, should refer to the society all ordinary applications for material relief, and for employment; the society on the other hand would find frequent occasion to urge homeless applicants to profit by the uplifting influences of a mission that does not offer to the applicant the temptations of indiscriminate charity.

11. *At least one compulsory labor colony for habitual vagrants*

should be established in each State. The deterrent effect upon vagrancy of adequate laws, rigorously enforced, has not been generally tried in the United States. We can meet the vagrancy question in two ways: first, by allowing vagrants to grow and then endeavoring to reform them; secondly, by literally "frightening them out of their growth." At present we know practically nothing as to the number of unnecessary wayfarers in this country. In England it is estimated that not 3 per cent. of the vagrant class are honest work-seekers. In Germany, even the voluntary farm colonies, established for the reformation of the wayfarer, have developed the so-called "colony loafer."

The establishment in the United States of *voluntary* farm colonies on the German pattern seems inadvisable. The German voluntary colonies have little reformatory influence; colonists enter and leave largely at their own volition, marking prominently the advent of fall and spring. The average stay of the majority is but a few months. Only about 20 per cent. go to situations; over one-half of the colonists have already been inmates of colonies on one or more occasions. In some colonies three-fourths of the colonists are discharged prisoners. Voluntary colonies seem to be the last resort for wayfarers who are unable to find work or to exist otherwise, and they serve in addition as a passing-out home for many discharged prisoners. Reformation of character seldom occurs in the few months during which most colonists are willing to stay. Voluntary colonies, if established at present in the United States, would offer optional employment rather than necessary employment.

On the other hand, the *compulsory* labor colonies of Belgium, Germany and Switzerland deter vagrants. The English Vagrancy Commission, impressed by the union of indeterminate sentence, hard labor out of doors, and the segregatoin of the prisoners for a considerable period, has recommended the establishment of compulsory labor colonies in England. They are needed in the United States for their deterrent influence. Their reformative effect would probably be slight. The Massachusetts State Farm points the way for other States, although commitments to the State Farm are but partially indefinite, most vagrants being discharged on probation at the end of nine months. While we may hope eventually for sterner treatment of vagrants in jails and workhouses, the chronic idleness of the habitual vagrant demands continued, consistent, custodial treatment, if any betterment is to be hoped for. Even if such

treatment fails to better or to cure, it will have rendered the vagrant harmless to society, at an expense slight in comparison with what he might cost society if free, and his incarceration will act as a deterrent warning to others.

12. *In each State there should be established at least one hospital for inebriates.* Inebriates are of two classes, curable and incurable. The curable should be committed by the court to a hospital for inebriates for medical treatment; the incurable, including incorrigible and chronic cases, to a penal institution. The records of the Massachusetts State Hospital for Inebriates show that medical treatment, work in the open air, in an unenclosed hospital, for a considerable period, not over two yars, determined by the apparent recovery of the patient, resulted for the year ending June 30, 1906, in 40 per cent. of temperate cases, 16 per cent. of improved cases, 23 per cent. of unimproved cases, and 16 per cent. of cases not found. In each case the facts just mentioned were gathered at least four months after the discharge of the patient.

The superintendent believes it futile to endeavor to cure chronic cases that appear after several months of treatment, to be unable or unwilling to reform. Such cases should be transferred to strict disciplinary care, preferably in a compulsory labor colony. Upon the superintendent's recommendation the hospital has recently begun to receive voluntary "pay patients." Every charitable society keenly appreciates the urgent need of treatment of the curable stages of inebriety in some place other than the alcoholic wards of general hospitals, or as a disagreeable incident in the general wards of small hospitals.

13. *There should be an exchange among charitable societies of important facts regarding vagrants.* In recent years a national bureau of identification of vagrants and mendicants has been advocated by some charitable societies. The mendicancy department of the New York Charity Organization Society has been active in gathering and disseminating facts concerning individual vagrants, mendicants and impostors. Its experience gives weight to the recommendation of its special agent, Mr. James Forbes, that this form of charitable effort be developed and centralized for the general good of charitable societies. In some cities the proof that certain persuasive applicants for charity have long records elsewhere as peripatetic impostors has been enlightening to the contributing public. Questions as to administration, methods and expense should

be worked out in detail, and might be presented at the next National Conference.

In large cities, organizations dealing with the homeless should exchange information about cases that seem to apply habitually or dishonestly for relief; much overlapping of relief would be thus prevented. In New York City, the Salvation Army, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Joint Application Bureau and the Department of Charities have recently agreed to register such information with the Charity Organization Society, which will forward to each co-operating agency for filing purposes the principal facts.

14. *Industrial Homes and Prisoners' Homes.* It is difficult to determine the positive results of these temporary "homes," in the absence of definite information. The principle is good of offering a much-needed chance for a few weeks to the "down and outer," and especially to the inebriate, to obtain shelter, food, a chance to work, and a chance to earn a little money, under friendly and encouraging supervision. Many discharged prisoners need friendly guidance in their period of transition from the prison to the outside world. Such "homes" offer more help to a homeless man who desires to regain a foothold than do charitable societies generally with woodyards and lodges.

It seems doubtful, however, if the belief or claim that these homes have helped to establish large numbers of their inmates in permanent employment or normal industrial life can be substantiated. The Salvation Army, although expressing its belief that the average period of six or eight weeks' stay in Industrial Homes in nearly all cases restores men permanently to normal life, defines a "permanent position" as one taken by the week; nor has the Army any statistics to show that these situations have been verified, nor as to how long the men remained in them, nor as to what proportion of the men, who have once been in the Industrial Homes, returns to them for further shelter.

The Volunteers of America maintain two homes for discharged prisoners, and believe it safe to say that 70 per cent. of the prisoners coming to the two Hope Halls are now living reformed lives. It is unfortunate that a proportion indicating such admirable results cannot be more than the best belief of the Volunteers. Gen. Ballington Booth has written me that it is exceedingly difficult to ascertain the number of men who are at present leading reformed

lives, and doing well, who have passed beneath the influences of the Volunteers. Many such men cannot be written to, lest their present positions be jeopardized. Gen. Booth says that this is as definite a statement as his books will enable him to give, in answering the questions regarding the Prisoners' League, which nearly 50,000 men have joined since its inauguration.

15. *Free Employment Bureaus* seem still in an experimental stage in this country. The recent report of the Bureau of Labor indicates some failures, many mistakes, and several successes. Charitable societies should maintain toward free employment bureaus a distinctly encouraging attitude, until the bureaus seem definitely to fail in their important purpose of finding for labor, even though it be largely casual, a helpful market. Unless it is clear that unemployed labor, largely unskilled, can generally secure employment by its own efforts or by that of reputable private agencies, the free employment bureaus seems a natural form of State aid. But if consistent deterrent efforts are made by States and communities to decrease the number of vagrants, it is possible that the number of unemployed unskilled workmen may also decrease to such an extent as to render unnecessary the establishment or continuance of free employment bureaus.

16. *The relation of State Boards of Charity and of Control to vagrancy legislation and to the treatment of vagrants should be active and constructive.* The present attitudes of most State Boards, as indicated in their letters upon this subject, indicate little interest or information regarding vagrancy. "No jurisdiction," "Nothing as yet," "Very little to do with the problem of vagrancy," "Never had the special attention of this Board," "No relation, no powers," are discouraging answers, if the State is the smallest unit in an effective treatment of vagrancy. Several State Boards are at present active in suggesting and furthering vagrancy legislation.

Few important suggestions as to more adequate treatment of vagrants have been received from State Boards. Massachusetts reports satisfaction at the results of present measures. The suggestions of New York have been embodied in this paper. Wisconsin believes that putting vagrancy under State control would probably demand the creation of a separate board. Yet our analysis of present vagrancy conditions indicates the necessity of State agitation and co-operation. A State campaign against vagrancy needs State

guidance or encouragement. No one local organization can stimulate and direct the activity of many local centers. The co-operation of railroads, public and private charities, the press, and individuals must be sought; the State Board seems the natural body to attempt this work. May it not be that a more liberal interpretation of the duties of State Boards will include greater concern about a class that, as we have conclusively seen, makes very heavy claims upon individual charity, almshouses, hospitals, and institutions for defectives and delinquents?

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS.

(a) Vagrancy is a national problem.

(b) The treatment of vagrancy for the present should be deterrent.

(c) Our present methods are neither sufficiently repressive nor sufficiently helpful.

(d) Present work tests do not materially diminish vagrancy.

(e) Attempts to prevent vagrancy will be far more effective than attempts to cure.

(f) Able-bodied vagrants must work or be imprisoned at hard labor.

(g) Vagrancy laws should be enforced if adequate, amended if inadequate.

(h) Sentences of vagrants should be cumulative.

(i) Towns lodging vagrants should provide for them a separate house, or if they are lodged at the almshouse, separate and distinct quarters.

(j) Vagrants should not be lodged in police stations.

(k) A municipal lodging house should be established in all cities having a vagrancy problem.

(l) Vagrants trespassing on railroads should be arrested and imprisoned at hard labor.

(m) Greater co-operation is necessary between towns and railroads in prosecuting vagrants.

(n) Railroad trespass laws should be enforced, strengthened or adopted.

(o) Costs of the prosecution and maintenance of vagrants should be made a State charge.

(p) Special State police officers should be appointed to aid in prosecuting vagrants.

(q) In cities troubled with vagrants and beggars there should be at least one special mendicancy officer, in plain clothes.

(r) The Department of Health should prescribe adequate rules governing the maintenance and supervision of common lodging houses.

(s) Lodging houses maintained by charitable bodies should be models of their class.

(t) Missions giving food or lodging to destitute men should require in return a reasonable amount of work, except in special cases.

(u) At least one compulsory labor colony for habitual vagrants, with indeterminate sentence, should be established in each State.

(v) At least one hospital for inebriates should be established in each State.

(w) There should be an exchange among charitable societies of important facts regarding vagrants.

(x) Industrial Homes and Prisoners' Homes are helpful agencies in the restoration of homeless men or discharged prisoners to normal life, but the extent of their ability to accomplish such restoration is not clear.

(y) The relation of State Boards of Charity and of Control to vagrancy legislation and the treatment of vagrants should be active and constructive.

APPENDIX.

SOME MASSACHUSETTES LAWS.

Revised Laws of Mass., 1902, Ch. 212, Section 59. DEFINITION OF VAGRANTS. "Idle persons who, not having visible means of support, living without lawful employment; persons wandering abroad and visiting tippling shops or houses of ill-fame, or lodging in groceries, out houses, market places, sheds, barns, or in the open air, and not giving a good account of themselves; persons wandering abroad and begging, or who go about from door to door, or place themselves in the streets, highways, passages or other public places to beg or receive alms, and who do not come within the description of tramps as contained in section 56, shall be deemed vagrants, and may be sentenced to the Massachusetts Reformatory or State Farm, or shall be punished by imprisonment for not more than six months in the house of correction or workhouse."

Section 60. ARREST OF VAGRANTS. "Sheriffs, deputy sheriffs, constables and police officers, acting on the request of any person or upon their own information or belief, shall, without a warrant, arrest and carry any such vagrant before a police, district or municipal court, or trial justice for the purpose of an examination, and shall make complaint against him."

Section 56. DEFINITION OF TRAMPS. "Whoever, not being a minor under seventeen years of age, a blind person or a person asking charity within his own city or town, roves about from place to place begging, or living without labor or visible means of support, shall be deemed a tramp.

An act of begging or soliciting alms, whether of money, food, lodging or clothing, by a person having no residence in the town within which the act is committed, or the riding upon a freight train of a railroad, whether within or without any car or part thereof, without a permit from the proper officers or employes of such railroad or train, shall be *prima facie* evidence that such person is a tramp."

Section 57. PUNISHMENT OF TRAMPS. "A tramp shall be punished by imprisonment in the house of correction for not less than six months nor more than two years, or by imprisonment at the State Farm * * *."

Statutes, 1904, Chapter 30, Section 21. WORK REQUIREMENTS IN PENAL INSTITUTIONS. "Every person who has been committed to a workhouse shall, if able to work, be kept diligently employed in labor during the term of his commitment. If he is idle, and does not perform such reasonable task as is assigned, or if he is stubborn and disorderly, he shall be punished according to the orders and regulations established by the directors."

Section 22. NON-RESIDENT VAGRANTS, OR TRAMPS. 'When a person not having a legal settlement in this Commonwealth becomes idle or indigent, he may be committed to the workhouse, to be there employed, if able to labor, in the same manner and under the same rules as other persons there committed."

Chapter 348, Section 1. SEPARATE QUARTERS FOR TRAMPS AND VAGRANTS. (Amendment of Chapter 274 of the Acts of 1904.) "Persons committed to any workhouse or almshouse established under the provisions of chapter 30 of the revised laws, for vagrancy, drunkenness or petit larceny, or as night-walkers, rogues or vagabonds, or for any other offense against the laws of the Commonwealth, and persons received therein as tramps or vagrants without commitment, shall be confined in separate and distinct quarters in such workhouse or almshouse, and shall not be permitted to associate or communicate with the pauper inmates thereof."

Rules relative to the RELEASE OF PRISONERS FROM THE STATE FARM, adopted August 4, 1905, by the State Board of Charity. "If it appears to the State Board of Charity that a person serving a sentence at the State Farm has reformed, it may, upon such conditions as it may determine, issue to him a permit to be at liberty for the residue of the period for which he might be held, and may revoke it at any time previous to its expiration."

Rule 2, TRAMPS AND VAGRANTS. "Prisoners who may be held in custody for a term not exceeding two years, shall be entitled to release on probation at the expiration of nine months from the date of their commitment, on the recommendation of the Superintendent of the State Farm. If returned for violation of the conditions of the release, they shall remain at the State Farm until the expiration of the term of the maximum sentence."

Acts of 1905, Chapter 344. SANITARY AND LABOR REQUIREMENTS IN MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSES. "Cities and towns which provide lodging for tramps and vagrants shall require them, if physically able, to perform labor of some kind in return for the lodging and food furnished to them; and the places in which such persons are lodged shall be kept in such order and condition as may be prescribed by the State Board of Health."

Chapter 81, Section 22. WORK REQUIREMENTS IN MUNICIPAL LODGING HOUSES. "The overseers of the poor and the officer in charge of premises provided by the city or town for the purpose of supplying food or lodging on the said premises, may require any person applying for and receiving food or lodging to perform a reasonable amount of labor in return therefor, and may detain him for not more than twenty-four hours after the time of such application, until the labor required of him as aforesaid has been performed."

Section 24. PENALTY FOR REFUSING TO WORK. "Whoever refuses or neglects to perform any labor required of him under the provisions of the two preceding sections, or while performing such labor wilfully damages any property of the city or town requiring the same shall be punished, in the county of Suffolk, by imprisonment in the house of correction for not more than one year, and in other counties, in the house of correction for a like term, or at the State Farm."

The following regulations governing "tramp houses" were adopted by the Massachusetts State Board of Health:

1. The means of lighting and ventilating sleeping rooms shall be beyond the control of lodgers and shall meet the approval of the local board of health. Each room shall have direct connection with the outer air through one or more windows above the surface of the ground.
2. Not less than three hundred cubic feet of space shall be allowed each person.
3. The floors and stairways shall be smooth and tight, and if of wood shall be either painted or shellacked.
4. If movable bedsteads are used, they shall be single and of iron, with woven wire spring, covered with one or more blankets in place of a mattress.
5. No person shall be allowed to sleep in his day clothing nor to smoke in the rooms.
6. No person shall be allowed to go to bed without first having had a full bath.
7. Each person shall be provided with a clean night shirt.

Draft of a Proposed Railway Trespass Law (Criminal), intended to combine the essential features of the Massachusetts law with those of drafts suggested by the New York Central Lines and the Wabash R. R. Be it enacted, etc.:

Section 1. Whoever without legal right walks on or stands on or crosses a railway track or right of way, except where the same crosses station grounds or a highway (is guilty of a misdemeanor), shall forfeit not less than $5 nor more than $50, and may be further punished by imprisonment for not more than 60 days at hard labor.

Section 2. Whoever without legal right attempts to enter or enters or is on or upon any railway rolling stock in motion or stationary, except for the affirmatively proved bona fide purpose of transacting lawful business with the company having custody of such rolling stock (is guilty of a misdemeanor), shall forfeit not less than $10 nor more than $100, and may be further punished by imprisonment for not more than 120 days at hard labor.

Section 3. Upon view of the offense, any person lawfully authorized to make arrests may without warrant and shall arrest all persons offending against the provisions of either of the foregoing sections.

DISCUSSION ON VAGRANCY.

MAJOR PANGBORN—Last night your chairman asked me if I would make some statement as to the railroad's position on this very important evil. In the eighteen years, 1888 to 1905, statistics of persons killed and injured by accident on railroads showed besides passengers and employes, other persons killed, 82,881; injured, 108,709; total killed and injured, 191,590. Eighteen per cent. of those killed and injured were not what we call trespassers. They were persons killed and injured at highway crossings. This leaves a balance of trespassers killed and injured of 156,390, of whom 15 per cent. only made claims. So that 75 per cent. of the total are without friends or lawyers working up cases for them. That would leave 132,912 tramps or trespassers killed and injured. With a full sense of the responsibility that I take in making the statement I assert that is not one-third the number. It is impossible for the railroads to get from their own employes an accurate knowledge of the vagrants that are killed and injured on the line. We have reports that are made directly to the president every month, but we know that these probably do not contain much more than half the number. Naturally you ask why.

The situation is different now from what it used to be when we gave free transportation. Then we had the co-operation with local officials that we have not had since. Then there was less of that tendency to be "agin" the railroads that you see typified from the highest to the lowest and that has brought about on the part of the township, county, state and municipal authority a sort of disposition to whack us. And they do whack us. Now why do we not get the actual reports and full statistics? Expenses are very largely increased in consequence of the conditions I have stated. The employes who usually find the bodies of these poor unfortunates feel that the roads do not get from the local authorities and from the States the protection that they should have for the taxes they pay. So there is a feeling on their part of avoiding increases in operating expenses. If the section boss finds a body, his duty is to notify the coroner so he can hold an inquest. If that is done the engineer and possibly all of the train force are laid off until the next day, when he makes the inquiry. The average cost of an inquiry over the body of a tramp is fully one hundred dollars. Now, then, the question comes up, shall the railroad stand that? The various officers in turn, from president down to section boss, find fault with increasing expenses and the result is that bodies are often hastily disposed of without inquest or report. There is hardly a railroad line in this country but what has private graveyards on its right of way.

I have no hesitation in saying that the number of killed as given here from the total of the Interstate reports is no better than ours, and it does not include one-third of the total. We can not turn a body over and get the city or state authority or the township or municipal authorities to bear the cost of burial. If we take possession of it they won't take possession of it from us; all the expense is saddled upon us. With the injured, we give first aid always, no matter who the man may be. If we can't do anything else we have him taken to a hospital and then our expense account is largely increased. No railroad company can give accurate, definite

information as to the number of tramps, vagrants, or whatever you may term them, who are killed and injured on the railroad. But so largely does the killed come up to the injured that of the whole 48 per cent. are killed outright and fully 25 per cent. of the injured die afterwards. Now, bearing that matter in mind, and applying the percentage of the railroad systems of which I know the actual figures, to the whole, the maximum number of killed last year on the railroads of the United States was 19,000 and injured 24,000. Those figures I believe to be nearer right than any figures I have yet seen. Josiah Flint said some years ago that there were 180,000 tramps in the United States. Taking the minimum and allowing one in twenty to have been killed or injured, the number that infest the railroads would be 430,000. These are the minimum figures.

Mention has been made of the police. I think that I am safe in saying that all railroad systems must and do have police. Approximating the cost of the special police force of the systems that I am familiar with to the whole, and the maximum of that expense is five millions. Call it the minimum at half. Now as to the cost in dollars and cents I will give you three items based upon the figures of the companies that I know and so estimate throughout the mileage of the United States. Losses and damage account takes in the losses of goods en route, baggage and goods stolen, largely by tramps and in that the approximate cost on the maximum basis to the company would be thirty-eight millions. Cut that in two and it is nineteen millions. Repairs to locomotives, cars and permanent way would in the maximum be fifty millions. Death and injuries to passengers and employes for which the company has to pay, three hundred and seventy-five millions, and cut it in two and it is one hundred and ninety millions. No account has been taken in this for overtime, for the derangement of schedules and for other expenses that result, but it would probably bring the maximum to fully $400,000 a day for every day in the year. As to what the tramps' part in that is, to estimate to what extent they are responsible for accidents, would be impossible. They displace signals, they break switch locks and throw open switches, causing many derailments. They dislodge rocks from the side hills and they do many of these things in revenge and sometimes for pure maliciousness. Never in the history of the American railroads has there been such a vicious, such a destructive horde of vagrants on the railroads of America as now. Now estimating that twenty per cent. of the damage done is by the tramps, that is twenty millions a year. Say it is ten per cent., that is ten millions a year. Add the maximum and the minimum of police protection. In the one case it is $15,000,000 and in the other instance it is $25,000,000. Take the mean of the two and it is $18,500,000 that vagrants cost us in money per annum.

Colonel Chas. Miles, Salvation Army—I am thankful for the kind reception you have accorded our organization this morning. I look upon this magnificent Conference as a tribute to Salvation Army organization, and a monument to General William Booth, its founder. Had it not been for the book he wrote some years ago, "Darkest England and the Way Out," it is very questionable whether this Conference would be meeting as it is in Minneapolis this week. That book stirred not only Europe, but

our land as well, and roused an interest in the hearts and minds of noble-hearted people, and especially charity workers everywhere, that has resulted directly or indirectly, in organizations such as this taking on new life and energy everywhere.

I have been delighted with Mr. Lewis's paper this morning. I do not know that one could possibly criticise it. I am obliged to him for his friendly words in connection with our organization. The question of hotels is very important to us and to the men we shelter. The improvements that have taken place recently were not the outcome of the criticism that was brought to bear upon our movement at the Conference of last year; they were already in progress. The Braveman building, of which Mr. Lewis has spoken so kindly, in Chatham Square, New York, was open. The People's Palace was in course of erection. The Los Angeles building is just as beautiful, and has as good accommodations as the People's Palace and the Braveman building, and we have many other plans in hand for the improvement of our hotels.

We are but in our infancy in this branch of our operations. We did not seek, in the first place, to enter into the hotel business. That was far from our idea, but when our people engaged in mission work, and were brought face to face, night after night, with those that were homeless, it resulted in the opening of these institutions.

We believe every word that Mr. Lewis has uttered of the importance of making the hotels clean, well ventilated and fit for any ordinary clean man to live in. Our shelters cost the public nothing, though they barely pay their expenses, and in one or two instances we have to draw on our ordinary funds for the support of them. We are not likely to do away with the ten-cent hotel. We shall, however, improve it. We have spent, and are spending today, large sums in the better equipment of these places.

I might say another reason that brought into existence our shelters was the filthy condition of the cheap commercial hotels. Now, I am not excusing for a moment any faults that may have existed in any of our shelters. We shall, and are overcoming them, and we know that in the course of the next eighteen months or two years there will not be a Salvation Army hotel in the length and breadth of the United States that any sensible charitable worker could take exception to. All we ask for is time. We are a poor people. We belong to the poor. We shall always belong to the poor. The woes and sorrows of the poor are the woes and sorrows of the Salvation Army. If these men need shelter, they must have shelter. It is for the municipal authorities to make laws in every city requiring all hotels to be properly kept, properly ventilated and properly provided with things that are necessary.

Miss Higgins, Boston—Active responsibility of some committee in every State is needed if we are to adequately deal with the vagrancy problem. When you go home, find the group who ought to be responsible for a campaign throughout your State and persuade them to study conditions and interest the public. The committee should include members of the State Board of Charity, members of private charitable societies, overseers

of the poor, judges of the courts, representatives of the police, of women's clubs and of business men's associations. Reach all the proper organizations working in the State and use them to work with the representatives in their large cities and small towns. Seize any opportunity to form such a committee. In Massachusetts one was formed at a State Conference to report to the next State Conference, but without any authority from the Conference.

The committee planned a legislative campaign with a definite program and asked the members to talk of the work to every person in the State that they could reach. Many members of that original committee were ready to speak anywhere at a moment's notice. Whatever your program, you have first, last and all the time to conduct a campaign of public education.

A few returns from Massachusetts will perhaps be interesting. Seventeen towns which last year lodged 2,711 tramps, this year lodged 254, a decrease of 2,460. The whole number of tramps and vagrants in the State Farm, reformatory and jails through the State for the last year is 290 men and 7 women. For 1902 the number was 722 men and 58 women.

It is the opinion of our committee that any adequate program for the treatment of homeless men should be made from the State point of view, any smaller unit is impracticable. We believe the program should include: (a) Enactment of good State laws. (b) Appointment of special plain-clothes policemen in the large cities, and also one or more State policemen to travel over the State to interest and energize the police, constables and overseers of the poor in smaller cities, and also to break up camps and colonies in the rural districts. (c) Establishment of institutions for hospital treatment of inebriates. (d) Substituting of probationary fine for imprisonment for non-payment, and the abolition of sentences for less than thirty days. Inebriates in hopeful stages should be sent on thirty-day or longer sentences to some hospital or reformatory treatment in institutions mentioned above. (e) Establishment of farm labor colonies in rural districts for chronic drunkards, and indeterminate sentence without maximum limit, so that patients may be detained until the superintendent of the board believes them fit to be released. (f) Policing of railroads. (g) Work test in towns and small cities in conjunction with public lodgings under supervision of local and state boards of health. (h) Municipal lodging houses in larger cities, with work test, medical inspection, and such constructive work as is possible. (i) Police licensing and supervision of all twenty-five cent lodging houses in cities, and elimination of cheaper ones. (j) Campaign of public education.

Talk everywhere you can, and talk with the definite request that at the end the people shall do something, and even finally go to the legislature and bother their senators and congressmen to support your legislative measures. Get them to realize that they must turn over their individual work for homeless men at their back door to established shelters, where work opportunity will be provided, and in the larger communities a trained social worker to advise and adequately help the men willing to give up tramping and work steadily.

MR. GATES, California—We are not only vexed as well as the people of the East, but we have the tramps' paradise of the United States and they appreciate it. We have a climate out there that attracts people to spend the winter. The tramps hear of it, too, and just in passing I want to say that we have had cases who have arrived in Los Angeles, for instance, in the last stages of tuberculosis. They had to borrow a nickel to ride up to the town and they said that they were helped there by charitable friends in the East. They were public charges the moment they got off the train in Los Angeles.

In California the State Board of Charities has been investigating this question. We sent out a large number of letters and received about two hundred replies. These letters were sent to all the judges of the superior court of California, to all judges, chiefs of police, to every sheriff of every district and prosecuting attorney and every justice of the peace and to every railroad superintendent. The replies had been very nicely placed away in the dockets prepared for systematic overhauling and inspection, when the great fire destroyed everything we had in the office and many of the letters were not even read, I am sorry to say. Probably from the letters I did read I could come to some conclusions as to the result. California during its winter season has the largest tramp population of any State in the Union. We have not so much during the summer, but you know the climate is such that there are parts of the State where a man can sleep out of doors every night in the year, and when a tramp can sleep out of doors every night and throw his shoe into an overhanging orange tree and bring down his breakfast it is easy to get along. The only way to break up the tramp nuisance is to have three or four farms or workhouses and put the tramps on them and make them work. They must be down by the railroad gateways and the trouble is that those counties are all poor. Siskiyou county in the northern direction and Truckee county of Nevada are not able to support and maintain such a home, and it is hard to support one in San Bernardino county, and there is where they get in. If we established a State police and work colonies and gathered these tramps in as soon as they came across the State line, and kept them there a reasonable time, when they were discharged they might be given a certificate and be exempt from arrest as a vagrant for a time. But if they are picked up again at the close of this time they should be a subject of commitment and serve a longer sentence. There is another phase of this. In Monroe county we have a man whose peculiar work is to look after tramp boys. Every constable considers it his special duty to pick up every boy, and as a result last year 130 boys were picked up in that county, less than half of whom lived in California. Some of them resided in the East. The boys were put in a special jail apart from other prisoners and kept there until they told about themselves. A few telegrams sent or a letter or two written would very quickly bring back replies. The result has been that nearly half of the boys have been returned to friends or relatives from whom they have run away in the East, some of them as far as it was possible to run.

STATE SUPERVISION OF PRIVATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

BY REV. WILLIAM J. WHITE, D. D., SUPERVISOR OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

State supervision of private charitable institutions is a topic that has usually proved a storm center at State and National Conferences. Some managers of institutions of this kind see in the advocacy of such supervision a threatened invasion of personal rights and a step forward in the process of centralizing in the state all forms of charitable activity. On the other hand, those who favor it sometimes argue for a supervision so detailed and complete that it would practically amount to state control. It would seem that the old saying of the schoolmen, *In medio stat virtus,* is as true of state supervision as it is of most other things. In the happy medium between these extremes is found the solution of this practical question. In fact, when we read the discussions that follow conference papers like the present one we find a substantial agreement upon the main point, that some kind of supervision is necessary, and if properly conducted, is helpful to the institution and satisfactory to the state.

In a broad sense, any corporation that does anything to avert or alleviate human misery or human suffering in any of their varied forms without gain or reward is a work of charity, but if our discussion is to be practical and not merely academic, we must draw a line of demarcation between the benevolence, for example, of a fraternal society and the charity that erects a building for the shelter of dependent children. Such a classification exists in states where private charitable institutions receive grants of public money for the care, support, maintenance or education of some or all of their inmates. There can be no question but that the state, when such grants are made, has the right to see that such money is used for the purpose intended, and this of course entails a certain amount of supervision.

In New York State, private institutions, even though they receive no public money for the care, support, maintenance or education of their inmates, have their taxes remitted, and sometimes assessments and are usually supplied with free water. It would seem but just, therefore, that the State, in consideration of these privileges, would at least have the right to ascertain through its

Board of Charities whether these institutions are worthy of the exemption granted them, whether they are doing the work they profess to do. The taxpayers, upon whom fall the added burden of remitted taxes, are entitled, in the person of trained inspectors, to be taken into the institutions to express approval or criticism of the management.

But is the financial standard to be the only one by which we are to differentiate charitable institutions and bring them within the jurisdiction of public supervising officers? Has the state no right to exercise any kind of supervision over institutions that have been created by the generosity of private citizens, or the activity of religious bodies prompted from motives of faith and love? Apart from the question of the extent of the inherent right of the state to supervise institutions of this kind, it would seem that the state can not be indifferent to the welfare of two or three hundred children, for example, who are housed in a private institution where they are preparing for the battle of life, preparing to assume the responsibility of citizenship. The municipality where such an institution is found has the right at least to see that the buildings are in good sanitary condition, that nourishing food is given to the inmates, that adequate educational facilities are given the children. And what is true of an institution for children is also true of institutions for the aged poor, for the sick and the insane. The life and health and happiness of all its citizens, who by reason of poverty or infirmity may be compelled to seek admittance to private institutions, ought to be the object of the care of the state to the extent at least of the supervision of the conditions under which the citizens are compelled to live.

The "dollar" standard ought not to be the only standard by which to measure the supervisory powers of the state over private institutions, and in contending for other grounds on which to base the right of the state we do not thereby make our definition of a private charitable institution so inclusive as to extend to missionary or fraternal societies, or even to societies that exist for the purpose of giving relief to needy families in their homes, like the St. Vincent de Paul Society, for instance. A limitation is suggested by the committee on state supervision and administration of the National Conference that was held at Portland, Me., in 1904, when it says: "It will probably be agreed that where institutions are established to care for persons too ignorant or incompetent to look

after themselves the public is interested in the management of such institutions and the state should have the right to visit and inspect them whether supported by public money or not." The helplessness of its citizens is therefore a legitimate basis for the claim for supervision of private institutions by public authority. The arguments for the right of inspection are put very clearly in the thirty-second annual report of the Board of Charities of the State of New York made to the Legislature in 1899:

> "Under our theory of government, the state is, in temporal matters, and subject only to the Constitution of the United States, supreme over all within its jurisdiction—otherwise it would cease to be the state—and possesses authority to exercise for the common good of its people certain powers known as 'police powers,' whereby, to use the language of an important judicial decision, 'the health, good order, peace and general welfare of the community are promoted.' These powers, which cover, and to a large extent, regulate, many of the fields of life's activities, are appropriately divided into classes, and delegated to public officers, whose duties are set forth in laws framed by the legislature, and, in the case of the State Board of Charities, also in the constitution.
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> "As the result of experience and observation, the state has found that, for the individual good and the common welfare of its citizens, it is important and necessary to visit, inspect and supervise the work of its public and private charities.
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> "Grave abuses of various kinds have not been uncommon in charitable administrations, and as such administrations are carried on presumably for the public good, and voluntarily to perform certain services for the state, as well as to gratify the charitable inclinations of their members, it has been found desirable that they should be under the watchful eye of somebody of competent jurisdiction, with power to protect the interests of the public, and especially of the poor, in whose name and for whose cause the benefactions of individuals are intrusted to those voluntary almoners.
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> "It is certainly conducive to the welfare of the state, of which so many citizens are applicants for charitable assistance of one form or another, for some responsible authority in the state to make certain that the inmates of charitable institutions receive proper care, that those capable of instruction be given the benefits of an education, and that moneys donated for the relief of the poor are honestly and judiciously used. Furthermore, it is to be assumed that no institution of charity which is properly conducted need

> have anything to fear because of the visitation, inspection and supervision provided by law, while, on the other hand, it is difficult to imagine how any honest interest in the state can possibly be benefited by the concealment of evils and abuses in such institutions. As a general proposition it can safely be asserted that the more the financial and other operations of charities are subject to impartial official scrutiny, the better are the results obtained."

Under present social conditions the care of those, who, through illness, mental or physical, or old age, are unable to support themselves, is the direct duty of the state, and a duty which cannot be shirked, and it is a grave question if the state can delegate its responsibilities in the matter.

It is true the state can invite through its proper officers the cooperation of those amongst its citizens, who, by training or experience, are fitted for the peculiarly delicate task of caring for its dependents, but the extent of their authority must always be subject to the general policy which the state has established in that particular field of charitable work, so that the care given to a dependent ward of the state in an institution under private control shall not fall below that given in a similar case in an institution exclusively under state control.

This much will, I think, be granted, but as denying the necessity of State supervision the high character of the men and women who serve as managers of the private charitable institutions will be adduced, as a proof that such supervision is unnecessary. Some recent experiences, however, even in the field of charitable work, show the fallacy of this reasoning. It has been shown in many instances that the "leading citizens" who form the Board of Managers of many charitable institutions know little of the detail work of the institution over which they are supposed to have control. The regulations laid down for the guidance of the executive staff are all that could be desired. It is the failure to carry out these regulations which leads to abuses which the intelligent supervision of a trained inspector would most likely have prevented.

But the question that has called forth approval or protest according as the point of view was favorable to inspection or not, is the question of the extent of this supervision. In New York State, apart from the regulations made by the health board or the fire department in the larger cities, and the possibility of a visit from the supreme court, a visit as rare as the traditional angels' visits,

private institutions depending solely for support on private contributions, are, by a decision of the Court of Appeals, exempt from the visitation, inspection and supervision of the Board of Charities. But even after this limitation has been placed upon the board it still retains a rudimentary supervision, i. e., it has the right to pass on the application for the establishment of institutions of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional or reformatory nature, although once the application is favorably considered, and the institution comes into existence, retaining the character of a strictly private institution, it has no further jurisdiction over it. But even in the decision of the court of appeals just spoken of there are not wanting arguments to prove that the grounds for the supervision of this class of institutions are just.

The difficulty encountered by the learned judges who gave the decision, was in defining a charitable institution within the meaning of the Constitution. They did not know where to draw the line, and so without calling into question the reasonableness of the arguments adduced for inspection of all private institutions, they solved the difficulty by declaring a charitable institution within the meaning of the law to be one receiving in some form and to some extent, public money for the support and maintenance of indigent persons.

Supervision, to be effective, ought to include the power to visit and inspect private as well as public institutions, to investigate their management, when it is necessary to discover any cruelty or negligence toward their inmates, and to have the power to correct such abuses if discovered. A State Board of Charity, endowed with this power and using it wisely, would acquire a fund of information and widespread experience so that it would be in a position to place this information and experience at the disposal of the boards of managers of private institutions, to direct them wisely, to help them, to co-operate in unison, and in some instances to attempt a classification of institutions for children, grading them in much the same manner as our schools are graded.

Other methods of co-operation between the private institutions and the supervising authority would at once suggest themselves to those familiar with the subject. There is no doubt that managers of private institutions do not as a rule invite state supervision, and their reason for this is found in the fact that they fear a supervision that would amount practically to control; a supervision which would hamper and impede their work instead of assisting and en-

couraging them. But where a state board exercises its power in an impartial and reasonable manner, where it has an eye single to the welfare of the inmates and of the institutions under its care, where it comes to visit and inspect as a sympathetic friend and not as a carping critic, where it effects reforms by wise and kindly advice, rather than by "grand-stand" methods, then the wisdom of such supervision will be apparent to every one, and there will be no question of the invasion of rights and the transferring of responsibilities.

An institution, like an individual, must constantly readjust itself to a changing environment if it is to live and properly perform the functions for which it came into existence. It needs the stimulus of intelligent, disinterested criticism, external to and independent of the institution. No institution that professes to take the best possible care of its inmates should resent the supervision that such criticism connotes. Where it does not exist there is danger of dry rot, and even of grave scandal. In one sense, there are very few private charitable institutions, for they are supported not by Boards of Managers, but by funds contributed by the charitable public in answer to appeals. The best recommendation an institution can have is the imprimatur of a Board of Charities whose supervision is valued by the public. Such an approval commands confidence. It is a guarantee that funds are applied to the purpose specified in the appeal. It is a proof that intelligent care is given to inmates. It is a safeguard for the directors, a valuable aid to them when they really wish to direct. It is not too much to say, at least of private charitable institutions of New York State, that the progress they have made during the last twenty years is largely due to the intelligent supervision of the Board of Charities.

This whole question of the supervision of private charities is an eminently practical one, and the discussion of it at our conferences ought to lead to a practical agreement at least as to the essential principle involved. In the report of the Standing Committee on State Supervision and Administration of the National Conference of 1904, we find that out of thirty States and Territories answering the question put by the Committee, "To what extent are private charities subject to supervision?" twenty States and territories acknowledged that there was no supervision over private charities, and a few reported that public supervision was extended to private institutions that received public aid. It is evident from that report

that there is a decided tendency in the direction of an increase of State supervision. When the manner in which this supervision, where it already exists, is exercised is understood, many objections against it will lose their force, and intelligent and progressive managers of purely private institutions will welcome an inspection and visitation such as we have in the State of New York. Our Board of Charities has the power to "visit, inspect and maintain a general supervision of all institutions, societies or associations which are of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional or reformatory character, whether state or municipal, incorporated or not incorporated, which are made subject to its supervision by the Constitution or by the law. It shall:

1. Aid in securing the just, humane and economic administration of all institutions subject to its supervision.

2. Advise the officers of such institutions in the performance of their official duties.

3. Aid in securing the erection of suitable buildings for the accommodation of the inmates of such institutions aforesaid.

4. Approve or disapprove the organization and incorporation of all institutions of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional or reformatory character which are or shall be subject to the supervision and inspection of the board.

5. Investigate the management of all institutions made subject to the supervision of the Board, and the conduct and efficiency of the officers or persons charged with their management, and the care and relief of the inmates of such institutions therein or in transit.

6. Aid in securing the best sanitary condition of the buildings and grounds of all such institutions, and advise measures for the protection and preservation of the health of the inmates.

7. Aid in securing the establishment and maintenance of such industrial, educational and moral training in institutions having the care of children as is best suited to the needs of the inmates.

8. Establish rules for the reception and retention of inmates of all institutions which, by section fourteen of article eight of the constitution, are subject to its supervision."

This power of supervision conferred on the State Board by the Constitution has been wisely exercised. The members of the Board are men who command the respect of the community in which they live. They are appointed because of their fitness for the work and not for political reasons. The inspectors who come into immediate

contact with the institutions are trained experts possessing, as a rule, not only a knowledge of the theory of supervision, but a practical knowledge as well, born of experience and of contact with managers of institutions. Their recommendations are sensible and necessary. They do not magnify trifles, but aim to improve standards and to correct real abuses, if any exist. I speak of their work from personal knowledge, because my office of supervisor of Catholic Charities brings me into close touch with our State Board. It may surprise some to hear a Catholic priest plead so unreservedly for State supervision of institutions that have been called into existence by faith and supported by charity.

Prof. Muensterberg, in his excellent book on Impressions of American Charity, in speaking on the subject of State Supervision of Private Charities, says: "In America prevailing political influences scare private philanthropy from any desire to combine with public administration and makes it anxious to preserve its unrestricted liberty in this department at any rate. Sectarian beneficence, notably that of the Roman Catholic Church, is equally sensitive in this respect."

This is certainly true in many instances, particularly in the case of children's institutions. Where public authority has been indifferent to the rights of dependent children as regards their religious belief, the church has looked askance at public supervision, but where this inherent right has been conserved, where the supervision has been intelligent and uplifting, it has been acknowledged as just and necessary, is welcomed as a tremendous power for good and an important factor in creating and maintaining a permanent standard of excellence.

Prison and Police Administration

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY JOSEPH F. SCOTT, SUPERINTENDENT OF REFORMATORIES, NEW YORK, CHAIRMAN.

Living constantly among criminals for over a quarter of a century has dissipated most of my theories concerning them. In the public mind there is something mysterious about the man behind prison bars, although it passes him by unnoticed, before and after his incarceration. The literature of the present day is filled with divers designations of the criminal. We are constantly assailed with "degenerate," "pervert," "mattoid" and a dozen other like terms. It is supposed by many that criminals are readily recognized by certain physical stigmata. While undoubtedly many prisoners show these characteristics and corresponding physical defects, the great majority do not.

It is possible that the expert in criminology may be able in some cases to predict with a degree of certainty the particular class of crime the offender under observation would commit, but he would be entirely unable to determine, upon examination of the subject, whether the man was a criminal or not.

In every individual there are certain characteristics, accompanied by physiognomical marks which might indicate the class of crime the individual would commit should he become a criminal; but this in no wise indicates that he is one. A body of criminals, shorn of their hair and dressed in stripes, creates a very different impression than would the same individuals, appearing in dress suits, with hair and whiskers a la mode.

The strongest characteristic which marks the criminals which have come under my observation is how intensely human they are. They are actuated by similar motives, and respond to the same treatment as the generality of men.

Society seems to be rational in its treatment of its sick, insane and defectives, but its methods in dealing with its criminals are not often as intelligent. Punishment should not be the basic prin-

ciple in dealing with the criminal, any more than it should be in dealing with the sick, insane and other defectives; but in the case of all it should be corrective. This view should be shared alike by the police, in detecting the criminal, by the courts, in sentencing the criminal, and by the prison authorities, in dealing with him.

The physician, in the treatment of his patients, readily separates their diseases into three groups: the congenital, the acute and the chronic diseases. The criminologist, with equal certainty, after observation, divides the criminals into three classes: the congenital, the incipient and the habitual criminal. While the physician may alleviate, in a degree, the congenital and chronic diseases, he is able to cure the acute diseases. Likewise, while the congenital and habitual criminal will remain criminals through life, they may be in a degree benefited by proper treatment, and the incipient criminal, who represents the great bulk of all our prison population, may be cured of his criminality and restored, a useful member of society.

The right of society in incarcerating the criminal is primarily its own protection and not the criminal's punishment, or reformation, except as a means for the protection of itself. The best means of protection to society is the continued imprisonment of the congenital and habitual criminal, and the reformation of the incipient criminal.

The modern view of the criminal, and the scientific treatment of him make larger demands upon the police and the courts, than heretofore. With the increasing tendency to parole prisoners the police are gradually being given their supervision, with good effect upon both, the prisoner being under greater restraint, and the police taking more active interest in him, with the view of preventing his relapse into crime. The courts are considering the character of the criminal as well as the character of the crime, and the probation officer is now becoming a necessary adjunct of the court, one of his duties being to investigate the character and environment of the accused before the court.

The suspended sentence, the placing of criminals on probation under suitable supervision, the establishment of separate courts to deal with juvenile crime, are among the preventive means of the courts, in diverting many from criminal life. Imprisonment is the common penalty for crime in this country. It has seemed to me that in many cases where imprisonment has been the penalty, both

society and the criminals would have been benefited by the imposition of fines under a system allowing them to be worked out under the supervision of the probation officer, where a portion of the wages would be taken to satisfy the fine.

If the chief function of the law is the protection of the community, and not the punishment of the criminal, I believe the function of the court should only extend to adjudging the person before it, to be a criminal; and the imposition of the term of imprisonment should not be a judicial function. We should deal with our criminals as we do with our lunatics. The courts now adjudge the person to be insane, and he is committed to a lunatic hospital, not for a definite time, but there to remain until cured of his lunacy. Likewise, should the criminal be committed to a prison, there to remain so long as he would be inimical to society. The term of imprisonment is an administrative, rather than a judicial function. The sentence should be indeterminate. The most rational way would be to commit prisoners to a central prison of detention, there to be classified, after a period of observation. Then they should be transferred to the institution to which they are adapted. After suitable periods, under practical tests, if the prisoner shows evidences of reformation, he should be released conditionally, under proper supervision, and not given final discharge until he has shown himself capable of living honestly in the community, for a considerable period of time. The congenital criminal and the habitual criminal should be kept under restraint, or supervision. The indeterminate method of dealing with criminals is, to my mind, the only rational method.

The best methods for the reformation of criminals are, as I have many times said, neither mysterious nor magical, but are those which are found most efficacious in the rearing of the normal child to a thoroughly developed manhood. Reformation is the development of the man. The curriculum of a reformatory should embrace the physical, mental and moral development of the prisoner and industrial and economic instruction under a rigorous and exacting discipline. For this purpose every reformatory established for the treatment of criminals should employ an efficient medical staff, with suitable hospital, baths and gymnasium in order that the physical defects so often manifested in criminals may be in a degree overcome. There should be a system of well organized schools for the mental quickening of the prisoner, in charge of a director who

thoroughly understands the peculiarities of criminals and their needs. There should be opportunity for abundant practical instruction in ethics, morals and religion, with the whole institution pervaded with a moral atmosphere that may never cease to be felt by an inmate, though he may be able to withstand it. Most prisoners are without the truth, and they need to be instructed in the truth, and my experience is that most of them are desirous of learning the truth, and they respond to it if properly instructed.

In every such institution there should be maintained a thorough system of manual and trades schools for industrial training. A large majority of men go to prison from their inability to work skillfully. In prison they should be made to work, and their labor should be such that they will love to work and to become sufficiently skillful to be able to enter, with a fair degree of equality, the ranks of workingmen when released. If the best results are to be obtained in this direction, the immediate earning capacity of prisoners while in prison could well be sacrificed to their better trades instruction. That prisoners may become thoroughly familiarized with earning and saving while in prison, they should be paid for their day's work, they should be charged with their board, clothing, and medical attendance, and allowed, upon their release, the money so earned.

The discipline in a reformatory institution should be rigorous and exacting, at the same time permeated with that degree of kindness to inspire the prisoner to his best efforts with the feeling that not only the right, but the beneficial thing is being done for him.

There should be a system of successive grades, to recognize his effort, and a system of fines, depriving him of his money earned, for derelictions in study, work and conduct. Military discipline in connection with this is found to be exceedingly beneficial in inculcating promptness in obedience, attention and harmony of action with others. It develops the prisoner, physically, quickens him mentally and, by making the prisoner a part of the disciplinary force, gives him a clearer insight into the meaning and benefits of thorough discipline. The standards of discipline should be so fixed that each may know exactly what to expect, and that his release can only be accomplished by reaching such standards through his own efforts. Having attained those standards he should be released upon parole, to suitable employment, under efficient supervision for a period of time, long enough for him to demonstrate his fitness

for an honest life in society, when he should be given an absolute discharge from sentence. Should he prove himself unworthy he should be apprehended and returned and either given an additional test, or transferred to the prison for habitual criminals.

What are the results of all this reformative effort in the treatment of crime? is a question often asked. In answering this, I avail myself of statistics for the State of New York, which are at hand, believing that the statistics of other states where these methods have been adopted, will show relative results in proportion to the application of similar methods.

At the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, of which institution I am superintendent, during the year ending September 30, 1906, 1,016 men were paroled, of whom, at the end of the year, 348 earned their absolute release and 530 were still reporting, making a total of 878, or 86 4-10 per cent. who had maintained satisfactory conduct during parole, up to that time. Nineteen were declared delinquent, for whom warrants had not been issued; warrants had been issued for 45 who had not as yet been apprehended. Ninety-nine had been returned for violation of parole. Ten were sentenced to other prisons; two returned to the reformatory on new charges, and thirteen had their accounts closed because of expiration of sentence while on parole. These statistics do not change materially from year to year. Going back over the records, 1,000 cases have been tabulated, remote enough to determine the results after a period of years. It was found that 76 per cent. had maintained themselves in such a manner as not to have been again sentenced to prison.

In those states where preventive methods have been most thoroughly tried, the effect upon crime is, in many cases, marked. For instance: In the State of New York there were admitted to the several prisons of the State, during the year 1896, 130,245, and for the year 1906, 94,677, a decrease of over 27 per cent., while the population of the State increased, approximately, 22 per cent. When it is considered that the State of New York is the gateway for the larger part of our immigration, of which large numbers make the State their residence, it is reasonably evident that the preventive measures employed keep many from prison who would otherwise go there and that the prisons and reformatories are actually reforming many of the prisoners committed to them so that they do not return to a criminal life after release.

For the further eradication of crime, the energy of the community should be continued toward a better jail system. The present system has fostered rather than retarded crime. The criminal, in committing crime, offends against the State. He is tried by courts created by the State and should be afterward sentenced to and confined in prisons controlled by the State. A jail should simply be a place of detention before conviction, and not a place of detention for sentenced criminals. There should be suitable prisons, conveniently located throughout each State, entirely under State control, for the care of such prisoners, after conviction.

The indeterminate sentence, devoid of its maximum limitations, should eventually be enacted in each State. Prisoners giving evidences of reformation should be returned to society as soon as practicable, and habitual criminals should be constantly restrained under supervision. There should be reformatories in each State for the treatment of both misdemeanants and felons and further reformative measures should be used in the State prisons. Courts should be established throughout each State for dealing with juvenile offenders and probation officers should be attached to each court dealing with adult criminals.

The police is the logical department for the supervision of criminals and prisoners should be paroled to their custody. Having such supervision I believe their attitude would so change toward the criminal that they would perform their functions judiciously. The Bertillon, or some other system of identification, should be so generally and thoroughly established, through a bureau of the general government, that a re-arrested criminal anywhere in the union should be unable to pass unidentified. And above all, and through all this, should pervade that wisdom and justice and mercy in dealing with our unfortunates, whom we call criminals, that would be sanctioned by science, morality and Christianity.

MODERN PRISON PROBLEMS.

BY HENRY WOLFER, WARDEN STATE PRISON, STILLWATER, MINN.

What are they? They are legion; it would be impossible to outline them in the brief space allotted to this paper. The modern reformatory for adults under thirty years of age, who have not previously been convicted of felony, known as the "Elmira System," embodies many of the practical features of prison reform. Some of our prisons have adopted a great many of these reform features, but none of us, not even the best, have, in my judgment, yet reached a point where we can safely say that we have solved the great problem. Our scathing arraignment by Mr. Brand Whitlock, mayor of Toledo, Ohio, in the last two issues of Everybody's Magazine, is not entirely groundless. His rather loose condemnation of police magistrates and the judiciary generally, police administration and prison and reformatory methods is almost startling. The keynote of his argument seems to be that we are all guided by a spirit of revenge, that society, the state and the government generally in its dealings with the offender, large or small, are guided by a spirit of retaliatory punishment. In this I think he goes altogether too far, although there is some truth in his argument. He says "love is the panacea of nature," and concludes by quoting from Emerson the following:

"But there will dawn ere long on our politics, on our modes of living, a nobler morning than that Arabian faith, in the sentiment of love. This is the one remedy for all ills, the panacea of nature. We must be lovers, and at once the impossible becomes possible. Our age and history, for 3,000 years, has not been the history of kindness, but of selfishness. Our distrust is very expensive. The money we spend for courts and prisons is very ill laid out. We make, by distrust, the thief and burglar and incendiary, and by our court and jail we keep him so. An acceptance of the sentiment of love throughout Christendom for a season would bring the felon and the outcast to our side in tears, with the devotion of his faculties to our service."

Words truly and nobly spoken, but only measurably practical for our time and age. When we shall have reached the stage of human perfection that Emerson describes we shall have no thief, no burglar, no incendiary. Our poor, weak, criminal nature will have been entirely eliminated from the body politic and the millennium will have dawned.

To return to earth and as near as possible to the practical side of these questions, what appear to be our most glaring faults? It must be admitted that we are not wholesomely supplied with that peace-bringing nectar, the milk of human kindness. Our ideas of regulating our defectives and criminals are influenced more or less by practices and traditions that have come down to us from the days of Moses. Under the guidance of the Divine Master we have made some progress in "the law of love," in contradistinction to the law of fear, but we are far from perfect. Imprisonment is usually associated with the thought of punishment, and the infliction of punishment with the inspiration of fear, and through this fear the teaching of a wholesome respect for the law. It also presupposes that this idea of punishment, as an example to others, contributes a salutary, regulative influence for good. Is this true; are any of these three associated ideas of imprisonment well founded? Does it create fear and through it inspire respect for the law and operate as an example to deter others from evil ways? I think not; punishment can not be associated as a primal factor in the development of high ideas of penal reform. Punishment is retribution, it retributes to a criminal what is proportionate to his offense. Punishment can not be disassociated from the idea of retaliation and revenge; it is the embodiment of the law of fear and force. It is the old law of Moses, and under it it is hard to get away from the thought that a given amount of punishment should be measured out for a corresponding amount of crime. Have we, and are we outliving it? Yes and no. Yes in so far as our penal administration moves away from and up above the idea of punishment, of retribution, fear, revenge and retaliation, and emphatically no if it does not. But I claim we have made progress and that we are steadily moving forward: our ideals are gradually rising to a higher plane. We sometimes become discouraged by the slow movement, and especially by the results obtained, but those who have watched the movement of prison administration during the past three or four decades know that we have made steady and substantial progress during that time. The indeterminate sentence, with its system of grading and parole, has been introduced, and its practicability well established; in its perfect form it is not governed by the law of force or fear; it presupposes that the violator of the law shall be sent to the prison just as an insane person is sent to a hospital for the insane,

or a sick man to a hospital for treatment, to remain there until cured or until it is safe for the individual and the community for him to go at large. Under this scheme organized society and its servants, the peace officers, the judiciary and the prison administrators have each an important and responsible part to act, and each one is responsible for his stewardship to the Supreme Ruler of the Universe. Society should govern itself so as to discourage crime as much as possible and encourage and promote the spirit of right living; its peace officers, as organized society's personal servants, reflect, or should reflect, society's highest ideals of government. When one of its units, or individuals, violates the law, the peace officer turns the culprit over to the judiciary, not to be punished, but for restraint, in order that society may be protected and the violator saved, if possible—saved from himself and to society. This means his tentative confinement under the indeterminate sentence, with such regulative influence as will enable him to work out his own salvation under practical and humane conditions. As soon as he is safe to go at large, he should be released on parole and never discharged from parole until he has fully demonstrated his ability and purpose to live honestly and in harmony with society's laws.

INSANE CRIMINALS.

I will mention a few of what appear to me to be serious faults in our prisons generally. One is the lack of humane methods in handling and caring for our so-called insane criminals. If a man is insane when he commits a crime, in what way does he differ from the man who, through the interest and influence of friends or relatives, has been found insane and sent to the asylum before he commits an overt act? The only difference I can see is in the name. The first is called an insane criminal, and the latter criminally insane. The former may be poor and without friends, but he is nevertheless entitled to the same protection, humane and considerate treatment, as the latter. We have at least twenty of these unfortunates in our prison, who were clearly insane when arrested, and the crime was doubtless the result of insanity. Why should such a poor unfortunate be branded as a criminal because he has no friends? In the majority of such cases the court could easily have determined his mental disorder and committed him to the asylum for the insane, where he belongs, and until some

pains are taken to follow out this humane course much needless suffering and heartless abuse of those poor unfortunates is bound to follow throughout their jail and prison experience. I ask you —the possessor of a heart that beats in sympathy with the most unfortunate and oppressed—is it not enough to excite your sympathy to see this poor mental wreck reeling about in his chaotic efforts to stand alone, without branding him as a criminal, and treating him as one?

There is another distinct class in our prisons that is not humanely provided for; they are

THE MISFITS OF SOCIETY.

There are misfits in every community, and it would seem as if this sad condition may become more and more pronounced as society ascends the scale of civilization. The misfit is the individual who by reason of his defective condition, either inherited or acquired, is unable to keep up with the procession. I am not referring to him alone as a criminal, although we have a great many of them in our prisons. He is nearly always in trouble whether at large or in prison; there seems to be no proper place for him; he is always and ever at a disadvantage. If at large, he exists under a strain of continual friction. In prison his condition usually becomes more trying. He is not insane in the ordinary sense of the term, but he is likely to become so under the load he is forced to carry. Society has no place for him, because he is not normal; the reformatory or prison has no place for him, because its rules of government are made for the normal. What shall we do with him? As he is a natural product of our civilization it seems to me that if justice and humanity are to prevail, some place must be established for him that will allow him the comforts of life that are natural and wholesome for his nature. I have no suggestions to offer for his special treatment while at large, or before he has fallen under the ban of the law, other than to say that if he had been treated fairly and justly, according to his deserts, he would be less frequently sent to prison. As to his treatment in prison, I have made up my mind that he should be treated in a class by himself, under a more easy and liberal form of government. Some prison men may differ with me in this respect. I know of those that advise solitary confinement and cellular treatment, compelling him to work and live entirely apart from his fellows. The

only thing that can be said in favor of this method is that it removes him (as a disturbing and irritating factor) from the prison community, but what about the poor outcast? Solitary confinement will kill what little mind he has left, instead of acting as a cure it will make him still more anti-social and unbalanced, and either kill him outright or speedily send him to the asylum for the insane. I believe that this class (for there is such a distinct class in every prison) should be separate from the balance of the prison population, housed and treated entirely separately. I would house them in a dormitory, give them the utmost liberty of association, allow them to play games, and in other ways encourage them to cultivate and enjoy the largest possible degree of social intercourse. A certain number of these unfortunates will always be found in our prisons, and until our ways change—I mean the state, society, the judiciary, and the prison administrators—many of them will be regarded as "habitual criminals." But some of them are only poor unfortunate misfits, whose natural sphere is in that misty and mysterious borderland, existing between eccentricity and insanity. At present we have about forty misfits in our prison at Stillwater, with probably from twenty to thirty more who, at times at least, hover near the line. None of these men described as misfits can be considered as insane, and under proper regulation they can be humanely and successfully handled in our prisons.

THE NORMAL CRIMINAL.

A large proportion of criminals that may be classed as approximately normal, are, or will be, well provided for in the application of the indeterminate sentence, supplemented by the grading and parole system. Under this system the rules of government are strict but humane; it cultivates a powerful incentive for the development of character and self-control. It teaches industry, economy and self-help. It compels, if necessary, such attention of the prisoner to details in discharging his duties, whether applying to industry, mechanics, school or discipline, that he soon learns the art of caring for himself, and under this beneficent regulation he finds encouragement on every hand to work out his own salvation.

POLITICS.

Good politics is a necessary function of good government, but bad politics has, I think, done more to retard and destroy good prison administration than all other causes combined. In some states it seems hard to get away from the theory and practice once so forcibly expressed that "to the victor belongs the spoils," but until our judiciary, our peace officers, our police magistrates, our juvenile courts, our reformatories and our prisons are entirely removed from the domain of politics, we can not hope for healthful and substantial progress. In some states heads of institutions are changed with each incoming governor, whether the administration is changed politically or not. Happily some of our states have outgrown this pernicious practice, and I am proud to say that Minnesota is one of them. Think of the fallacy of appointing a man at the head of a large institution, because he is a Republican or Democrat, or because as such he has been a good political manipulator, or has performed some political favor for the appointing power, instead of making the appointment on account of merit and special fitness for the place. It is no longer considered good politics to make such appointments, and the man or party who makes them, or the man who accepts them, will not last long with the people. I wish to say that Minnesota is one of the states that has lived down this barbarous practice and the heads of its various institutions are appointed and held in those positions, because it is believed that they have merit and special fitness for the positions they hold.

PRISON ADMINISTRATION.

What are the essential factors in a successful prison administration, and the most common causes of failure? Briefly speaking, I would say that the successful administration will have such a perfect organization that the head may see, feel and know every mental and physical movement of the barometer, such a close, loyal and sympathetic connection, that each and every department of the institution will co-ordinate for the general good of the whole. To accomplish this the executive head must have full control; he should engage and discharge all subordinate employes, and be held responsible for results; there should be a regular school for the instruction of the new employes and for the development of older ones. The discipline of the officers and employes should be

so uniformly good, wholesome and well balanced as to voluntarily enlist and hold the hearty co-operation of all of the staff, and so guide their dealings with and conduct toward each other as to furnish a good example to the inmates of the institution. The standard of efficiency for an officer or guard should be: the one who will maintain the highest degree of discipline and efficiency with the least amount of friction or punishment. The rules of the prison should be so well balanced as to interest the co-operation and respect of all of the employes, and of at least ninety per cent. of the inmates. With such an organization as I have briefly described, few clubs or guns will be required, and the general tone and trend of the institution will be as harmonious as a May morning, with only an occasional flash of lightning followed by a refreshing rain. There will be just enough of this to keep the organization fully alive and the springs of action well oiled. There will never be any serious outbreak or anything approaching mutiny, the very existence of which is proof that the prison is ill managed. The most common cause of failure is the appointment of an inexperienced man at the head. If he follows a good man, and he is wise enough to hold on to the organization he inherits, he may avoid shoals for a time, but he is bound to have trouble sooner or later: the lack of order will show itself by frequent serious breaches of discipline, lack of harmony, frequent outbreaks, attempts at escape, a feverish spirit of unrest and lack of interest in work or at school, and a general drag against good order and the communal spirit of helpfulness.

DISCUSSION ON THE COMMITTEE REPORT AND PRISON PROBLEMS.

MR. LEONARD—No man knows better than Mr. Wolfer that these problems are legion. We sometimes think we have them catalogued and a new one springs up. A young man came into our institution and was asked the ordinary stereotyped questions, among them, "What is your religion?" "Do I have to answer that, sir?" "Yes, that is one of the questions here." "Well, that beats me. I never knew that a man had to have religion to get into a place like this. What does he have to have to get out?"

MR. WHITTAKER—There are two or three suggestions in the paper that should be given careful consideration. The first one is that of a detention institution for the classification of criminals. We shall not reach the highest degree of usefulness in our reformatories until we have proper classification, with an institution under proper management to which the

courts should commit all persons convicted of crimes, there to remain until it could be determined whether the persons so convicted should be transferred to the Reformatory, State Prison, epileptic village or insane hospital.

The indeterminate sentence has been touched upon and to my mind there is nothing more important. But in administering this law we must understand that it has a two-fold purpose. First: To protect society from those whom we believe to be hopeless criminals by retaining them in the institutions; second, to parole such inmates as we believe after a reasonable trial within the institutions, can be safely returned to society.

To show that we are conservative in this matter in Indiana I would say that the average term under the old law in the State of Indiana was one year and nine months. Today the average term in the reformatory is two years and six months.

Too much can not be said on the question of moral instruction in such institutions. I have noticed many of our prison men and our State Board of Charities, when a new institution is being contemplated, bear largely upon the construction and physical development of that institution. It goes without saying that we should have good physical arrangements. But if more time were given by the management in finding, for the officers and employes of such institution, men who are morally right, men who would be good examples to the inmates, much more might be accomplished along lines of reformation than is being done today.

I heartily coincide with what my friend Wolfer has said with reference to politics. It should have no place in the employment of any man, nor should politics have any place in the parole or discharge of a prisoner from the institution where he is confined.

I do not fully agree with Superintendent Scott that paroled prisoners should be placed under the supervision of the police officer. With all due respect to the police officers (and many of them are our friends and assist us in our work), their training is negative. Men on parole belong to the institution just the same as before they were given their release, and should be looked after by the management of the institution. The success or failure of a paroled inmate depends largely upon the supervision he has while on parole. Therefore the officials of the institution should be constantly in touch with him. He is surrounded with temptation. His old friends who have led him into the saloon and other evil places, are at once upon his trail to pull him down if possible. It is then he needs supervision. Instead of a police officer, whose duty and training is to preserve order and make arrests, to look after such subjects, we should have trained men from the institutions who know the weaknesses and the characters of the fellows, and who will give them every opportunity possible to regain their lost positions in society.

Part of the earnings of the institution being paid to the inmates is good and the more that we can pay of the earnings to the inmate, the better will be the results.

Discipline in the institution is an important question, and at no time should it ever be had through fear of punishment. Discipline should be brought about by example, through the high ideals of the officers and the

employes of the institution. Moral instruction should have the first place in each of our penal and reformatory institutions.

Superintendent Scott says that 86 per cent. of the men paroled from the Elmira Reformatory prove themselves to be good citizens. I hope this is true, and if they carry out there what he says they do—that only first term prisoners are sent to that institution—I suspect his statistics are not far wrong. In the reformatory at Jeffersonville, Indiana, we receive inmates who are under thirty years and over sixteen years of age, without reference to the number of convictions. Our statistics are not so good. Not more than sixty per cent. of our men and boys who are returned to society make useful and respected citizens, and this will be true so long as we have men in our institution who have been convicted the second and third time for felonies.

I trust the day is not far off in Indiana when we may have a perfect classification of our criminal class and that the provisions of the indeterminate sentence and parole law may be more perfectly enforced. It is the meaning and purpose of the law in our State that the reformatory shall contain only such of our criminal population as are subjects of reformation, and that all degenerates and confirmed criminals shall be confined in the State Prison.

Mr. Johnson—The last speaker said the police are not the proper people to supervise paroled men, and the audience applauded. We have gotten into a way of thinking that our police are necessarily not the kind of men they ought to be. If this is true, then the police ought to be changed. A policeman is not necessarily a person whose business it is to apprehend criminals. He is a minor sub-official who attends to a vast amount of detail work. A policeman stands on the street corner to direct traffic; in some cities he keeps down the weeds along the sidewalk. He is a *polis* man, a man of the city. We are forgetting the true sentiment of reform when we assert that the policeman is a bad man, and therefore we must have somebody else to look after the criminal population. We shall never deal with our criminals properly until the man who makes the first arrest, the station house keeper, the committing magistrate, the prosecuting attorney and the judge, and the guards, as well as the head of the reformatory or prison, until all these people shall recognize that the purpose of the penal code is, as was said one hundred years ago in the constitution of Indiana, the principle of reformation and not that of vindictive justice. In the mind of the policeman who makes the arrest ought to be the idea, "here is a fellow who has gone wrong; I am going to help set him right." Too many of our reform movements take the direction that somebody is doing bad work, so we must put somebody else to do it for him. I admit we want two, three or four parole officers in our State, but we need also to get the police, and not only the police, but the sheriffs, in a different frame of mind. I know it is a long way ahead, but this conference looks a long way ahead. This is a prophetic conference, always has been, and always must be, if it is worthy of meeting together. We are to look at principles which reach far beyond our present immediate practice. We must set be-

fore us the principles that are best, even if we can not practice them at once, and we must be satisfied with nothing less than the best.

MR. STORRS, Michigan—I would like to ask Mr. Johnson what we are to do in the meantime before we get these ideal policemen.

MR. JOHNSON—We are to say we are sorry it is so, and work for something better.

MR. LEONARD—There are cities in this country where that is not universally true. In our State I am glad to say that we are having not only loyal but wise co-operation from the majority of the policemen. Our policemen are appointed in some places under strict civil service, like Cleveland, for example, and politics cuts no figure whatever. In my state the policemen get no rewards for capturing men. They do not profit one cent by any service they do. I attribute our success largely to the wisdom of our chiefs of police in keeping the men in touch and getting them interested. They are visiting the reformatory and getting to be a great help. We expect to have it almost universal by and by.

MR. WHITTAKER—Mr. Leonard, would you trust your paroled men to the police officers of your city?

MR. LEONARD—No, I would not. But that does not follow that he is not a good fellow. They are not trained yet. I want my parole officer. But he himself goes and gets the co-operation of a good policeman.

MR. FREDERIC ALMY, Buffalo—Until recently the men who were sent to Buffalo on parole from the Elmira Reformatory, were paroled to the police. A change was made about a year ago and they are now placed on parole with the Charity Organization Society. The reason was that the work with the police was unsatisfactory, although Buffalo has a good police force under as thorough civil service laws as exist anywhere in the country. The trouble was with the point of view. If anything was wrong, the police were inclined to suspect a man from Elmira and would even arrest him if he was nearby when anything had happened. With our society the point of view with the men on parole is sympathy, encouragement, friendship. With the police it is more fear and repression. The evidence in general before the New York State Probation Commission, of which I had the honor to be a member, was that policemen did not make good probation officers and the statute recommended by them provided that no policeman should be a probation officer. Unless the policeman is exceptional, his point of view is inconsistent with good work. I know that better parole work is now being done with the men from the Elmira Reformatory than was done in the old way at the New York State Reformatory, and Rochester is also now placing boys on parole with individuals rather than with the police.

MR. MORRIS, Omaha—The difficulty is not so much with our police as it has been with our juries. The police have really shown an intelligent co-operation in bringing about a change of conditions. However, men that

have been committed to the institutions have come back to the city and have been at once arrested as suspicious characters, and in one instance it took a man about three weeks to get up town. He was brought in and given three days or ten days as a suspicious character, and then discharged and picked up before he got a couple of blocks by another officer who had his reputation to keep up and given three or ten days, until finally, after the third arrest, he sent up town for one of the associated charity officers to come down and help him get a job without being arrested. The man did get a job, and today he is doing good work.

JOHN M. GLENN, Maryland—I can not agree to the statement that policemen as a class should be used as probation officers. Some policemen would make very good probation officers, but the majority of them are not qualified to combine probation work with their usual duties. Probation is a special work that requires special qualifications and special training, which are entitled to special salaries. It is necessary not only to keep an eye on the probationer, but to develop his character and act as his teacher and friend until he becomes again a good citizen capable of standing alone. We can neither train all policemen to be probation officers nor pay them the salaries that such work should demand.

We have heard something about the statistics of probation. These show little more than how many persons have been released from parole. It does not follow that because a man has behaved well under parole for six months or a year he is ready to do his part in the community as a citizen. A man whose tendencies have not been reformed may behave very well during the period of parole and go out into the world no better than he was when sent to a reformatory; while a man who is only weak may break his parole and be sent back to the reformatory. In order to prove the benefit of a reformatory system, we must know not only how many people have earned release from parole, but also how paroled men have behaved for several years after their release. The histories of those men who have been finally released should be carefully followed if we wish to know what effect the educational system of the reformatory has had on their lives.

MR. C. E. FAULKNER—I feel that more of us ought to express our appreciation of these excellent papers.

The Elmira Reformatory has been held before the people of this country for many years as an example of approved accomplishment in prison management. Twenty-five years ago, while serving on the state board in Kansas, I visited many juvenile reform schools, and incidentally the Elmira institution for first offenders between the ages of 16 and 25. As the result of a report made by our committee while on this service, Kansas established a reform school for boys, and an industrial reformatory for first offenders of a class of young men who could not properly be dealt with in either a a reform school for boys, or a state prison for older and more depraved offenders.

We are not hampered in this country by bureaucratic methods, and while we waste something in time and money under our independent

systems of state government, there is no stagnation, and there is much of progress. Mr. Wolfer, warden of the Minnesota State Prison, to whom we have listened with great interest, stands with his colleagues of the National Prison Association in advocating an indeterminate sentence, in holding that the protection of society and the reformation of the offender should be the aim and end of prison discipline, and instead of being urged to accept the gospel of prison reform, and to make official declaration of their faith, they are at the front, and beckoning others to follow. Let us uphold their hands, banish all thought of retribution as a primary aim of prison discipline, save those who desire to be saved, and secure in certain ways those who choose to do wrong rather than right.

Mr. Asbury, Indiana—It has been my fortune for some time to direct the school of letters in the Indiana Reformatory, and I have found out two or three things which I did not know before, all of which have been emphasized tonight; first, that of all human creatures the criminal is the most human; second, that anything that is good for a man on the outside of prison walls is equally good for a man on the inside; third, that methods of instruction and methods of reformation in a reformatory follow along precisely the same lines, with slight variations, as methods of instruction and methods of formation of character on the outside.

I have watched closely the education of some one thousand criminals in the last three years, and I am constantly asked such questions as: "Can men learn?" "Can ignorant men go to school and learn?" "Do they like to learn?" and "Do they want to go to school?" etc. Such questions can be answered by your own knowledge. You know that men on the outside like to learn. Well, men on the inside like to learn just as well, and sometimes a little better, because "they are up against it," as we use the term, and are grasping for anything that will assist them in any way, when on the outside.

It is said the great question in life is the question of behavior, of conduct. The whole problem in the reformation of criminals is reduced to the problem of education in its broadest terms. Bad motives must be replaced by good ones through education. Higher ideals of personal behavior must be substituted for lower ones. Such a policy makes a school of letters necessary in any penal institution, if the right kind of work is going to be done. This school of letters must not be a place in which patchwork is done. It must be thorough. It must begin at the bottom, taking advantage of any knowledge possessed by the learner, but never assuming anything.

I have a number of cases I could tell you about, but I shall mention one only. It is the case of a young man that had never had any chance. He was placed in school two years ago absolutely illiterate. Not above the average in intelligence, but possessing a high sense of honor. Whether or not he got it in the school of letters I can not say. When he broke his slate, which had been given to him, he wrote this note to the Assistant Superintendent: "Dear Sir: I am very much grieved because I broke the slate assigned to me at the beginning of the term. I write to inform you

of this because it might be charged up to the range tender, and further I believe it is right to do so. Hoping you will pardon me, etc." The same boy has twice refused a parole because he was not through school. Three weeks ago he came to me and said: "How long does school last?" I replied, "A month longer." And he said: "I am going up for parole next month, but, if I get it, I want to stay until school is out, as this is about the only schooling I wil ever get." That is one of a type of boys in the Indiana Reformatory School of Letters. Not many of them, of course, will refuse a parole. This boy said: "I want a parole just as bad as any man in this institution, but I have a chance now that I never had before in my life to get an education, and I will never get a chance again, because when released it will take all my time to earn a living." He will graduate in a few days in the common branches of an English education. This same boy is learning the trade of printing. He is a most industrious boy, never wasting a moment or losing the slightest opportunity for self-improvement, and is as happy in his work as it is possible for one to be under such circumstances.

The thing we are trying to do is not to give a great amount of knowledge, but to assist the men, in their efforts to be good, by strengthening their wills. To do this work we depend wholly upon citizen instructors. I want a citizen teacher who stands four-square on every question; a man who is genuinely honest and truthful, sturdy in character, resourceful, possessing the ability to impress himself on weaker men. Such a man can have more influence for reformation through his example than through any knowledge he may impart. It is estimated that no student remembers more than one-tenth of what he learns; therefore, the knowledge gained is a small item in the man's education. It is a matter of principle; a matter of example; a matter of some good soul coming into contact with a soul that is not so good; a matter of a man with a weak spirit and a weak will rubbing up against a will that is strong.

The Indiana Reformatory stands on this principle, that we need men to teach its inmates who are truly good men, strong in character; men possessed of tact and helpfulness; and we let the matter of knowledge play a distinctly secondary part. Therefore, the utmost precaution is used in the choice of teachers, and we are raising the standard every year. It takes a better man to teach in the Indiana Reformatory School of Letters than it does in the Indiana public schools, because he must be a man of special equipment of heart and head. He must not be freakish in any sense, because criminals have no respect for a freak. We have every reason to believe that we are meeting with a reasonable degree of success. In the matter of class work fully ninety per cent of the men make good and do passing work.

MR. POND—How much harm comes in this way as has sometimes been alleged? A man is a burglar. It is down in his very soul, the spirit of breaking into a house. He goes to prison. He goes to school and gets sharpened up, is keener as a burglar than he was before, and the school has done him harm. Now, I think there is a fine answer to that, but I would like to hear Mr. Asbury speak about it.

MR. ASBURY—Of course I can not say definitely, just as you can say that two and two are four, that that man will not be made worse by education. I will tell you what the assistant superintendent, a man of many years' experience in handling all kinds of criminals, said to me a few weeks ago. He said: "You will have to show me that education ever makes a criminal worse." I believe that you can lay down as a general principle that what is good for a man that is not a criminal will not hurt the man who is a criminal. We are educating boys in the public schools, some of whom are becoming criminals, and we might say it is all wrong to do so because we are making criminals; but no one advocates the destruction of the common schools on this ground. Of course, to educate a criminal sharpens his wits, but it ought also to reform his thinking and correct his conduct. We cast our bread upon the waters in the hope that it will come back some day; and, while it may occur that some men are made sharper in crime, I think it would be a very wrong principle to use in determining whether a man who is a criminal should be educated or not.

JOHN B. MARTIN, Boston—In the main, I agree with both Superintendent Scott and Warden Wolfer, particularly with Warden Wolfer in his comment upon the management of prisons. With him, I believe they should be free from political control; in Massachusetts they are so.

In the matter of criminal insane, Massachusetts has a separate prison for them, and by the end of the year 1907 will have a separate prison to care for those who are suffering from tuberculosis.

The probation laws of Massachusetts are quite liberal; they give to the arresting officer and to the Judge of the minor courts, and the Judges of the higher courts, power to release on probation. The prisoner by good behavior can ask for his release six (6) months before the expiration of his sentence.

In our county institutions, to which were committed last year 7,700 males and females, power is given to the Penal Institutions Commissioner to release on probation, and the practice in the last five (5) years has been to make a careful investigation in the cases of all applicants for release and, being satisfied that reformation so far as imprisonment can bring it about has taken place in the prisoners, they are released. In that time 2,800 prisoners, males and females, were set at liberty before the expiration of their sentence, entirely upon their own honor; they were not obliged to report to the Institutions Commissioner or his officer, nor does the department furnish any officer to watch them to see what they are doing. We take it for granted that they have been punished sufficiently for their offense, and that the prison itself will not reform the prisoner coming to it, and the best place for reformation is in the world outside; the lesson has been taught—if they do not live up to the law they can be deprived of their liberty. In the 2,800 cases released in the past five years from the House of Correction, there have been returned for not complying with the conditions of the probation 139 persons, less than 5 per cent of the total number released.

It is my opinion, and I am as strongly of the belief as when I commenced five years ago, that if probation means anything it must mean freedom to the man. It means that we shall have to release the man upon his own merits; he is not a child or ward of the state, nor is he one that should be considered a prisoner. I believe if a man is obliged to stand in line at the office of the Probation Officer and wait his turn to be questioned about what he has been doing, it takes from him what little pride he had when he left prison.

I believe the spirit of the time and the feelings of the people favor the unfortunate, for who is so unfortunate as that man who comes within the clutches of the law, who loses his liberty and who is branded as criminal or felon? It is for us to endeavor to wipe that stain from him, giving him to understand that we have a liberal disposition toward him; in many ways try to help him to live up to his agreement—for if he does not it is certain that he must go back to that or some other prison. If released, he should be released entirely and as free from all surveillance as he was before he was convicted of the crime for which he was sentenced.

MR. WHITTAKER—Those 2,800 prisoners that were paroled. Did you say they came from the House of Correction or from the State Prisons and Reformatories?

MR. MARTIN—The House of Correction.

MR. WHITTAKER—What was the nature of their crime?

MR. MARTIN—Drunkenness, vagrancy, night walking, assault, or petty larceny.

MR. WHITTAKER—You would not advocate, then, in the prison reformatory, the idea of releasing a boy from the reformatory or prison?

MR. MARTIN—I certainly should advocate that at any prison. It is done in our State Prison, where the worst prisoners are sent, with good results. Many commitments are for fines and for very short sentences. The sentences in our institutions run from two days to eight years. Many of them for 30, 60 or 90 days.

MR. H. S. ANDERSON, Texas—Our State has not yet any good law on this probation question. I would like to know how long the good behavior treatment enters into it, how much the good behavior lessens a man's sentence, if he may be given this probation sentence.

MR. MARTIN—He can have a sentence of more than six months and as much as five years, and he has a right in addition to his good time to make application for a release on probation when he has served within six months of the expiration of his sentence. If during the time he has been in prison his behavior has been good, he can file his application. And if he has some employment to which he can go, and has prospects for a livelihood after discharge, then we release him. Of course where the sentence is less the same course of proceeding is pursued. He is absolutely as free as he was when he was committed to the prison.

MR. STORRS—As I understand your probation law, a man is placed on probation directly from the court and never sees the inside of the prison. He is on probation directly from the court and is on that probation only a certain time, and then the court can dismiss him entirely?

MR. MARTIN—They do, I believe.

JUDGE JOHN DAY SMITH, Minneapolis—I want to refer for a brief moment to some of the statements made in the paper read tonight by our most excellent Warden, Mr. Wolfer, because I think they are the saddest of any to which I have ever listened. Mr. Wolfer tells us that of the prisoners confined at Stillwater, there are thirty or more that are hopelessly insane. And that was laid at the doors of our police system and our judicial system, our methods of control and sentencing. In my judgment the time to determine whether a prisoner is sane or insane is not at the time of his trial. If the crime of which he has been accused is a heinous one, the community is excited. The attorneys are being interviewed in the newspapers in regard to the case. The prisoner is not in a normal condition then, even if he is sane. I don't know to what extent the States have legislated upon this subject, but from my brief experience on the bench, it seems to me that this most pitiful condition ought to be remedied by statutory provision. In the State's prison the population perhaps is 500 or 700. And 30 or more of that population are hopelessly insane. That is, the only difference between those people confined in Stillwater and those restrained of their liberty in our insane asylums throughout the State, is that those in the asylums were sent there at the suggestion of their friends before there was any outbreak, and those in the prison are sent there after the outbreak occurs. Now, to me, that presents one of the most pitiful, and one of the saddest pictures that it is possible to present to this Conference. It had occurred to me before I went upon the bench and a hundred times since I have been there, that every State ought to have a medical board of prison examiners duly appointed, and the best that could be selected—experts along that line, who should act on cases presented by the warden when the excitement is over. The man has been convicted of crime and the judge has fulfilled the requirements of the law and sentenced him. Then, if the medical examiners determine that the prisoner is insane, he shall be transferred from the penitentiary to an insane asylum and there given the beneficent kind of treatment that we give to insane people.

DAVID F. TILLEY, Boston, Mass.—Mr. Martin has explained the system which prevails, in so far as the city of Boston is concerned, in releasing those who have been adjudged by the court guilty and committed to his institution. There are, however, a great many cases brought into court and placed directly on probation without having been sent to any institution. These are carefully investigated by the probation officers before being released and regularly visited thereafter. We in Massachusetts claim to have a fair probation system, and are endeavoring to improve it from time to time. We are hammering away at the subject and our next State Conference of Charities will be very largely devoted to the probation problem.

We hope from that Conference further improvement will come, because we realize that we are not perfect yet.

In addition to the work done by the paid probation officer, some of the charitable workers are endeavoring to do something for the younger men released from the reformatory. In our State before a young man is released from the Massachusetts Reformatory his name is sent to one of the charitable societies. If he is a Catholic his name is sent to the St. Vincent de Paul Society; if a Protestant, to the Boston Children's Aid Society; if a Hebrew, to the Federated Jewish Charities. These charitable agencies send to his home, in advance of his release on parole, a friendly visitor who endeavors to learn something about the family, to know what is proposed to be done for the young man, and if he has work awaiting him; who his companions have been and what have been the causes that led him into trouble. Then when the boy arrives home we expect that visitor to meet him as a friend and to explain to the boy that he is his friend, and that he is there to help him and encourage him to do what is right, and to continue that friendly interest until such time as the boy has got on his feet, has found steady employment and is, in the opinion of the friendly visitor, able to stand alone.

It is unfortunately true, as has been represented here tonight, that when anything goes wrong in the neighborhood where that boy lives, the police officer is inclined to believe him responsible and it is almost impossible for him to get a fair start. I know from experience how hard it is to get an officer to feel an interest in that boy. He thinks he is no longer susceptible of anything good. This condition must be overcome, and at times it is desirable to have the family move to another district so as to be free from the prejudices existing, if possible. We should get as many discreet people as possible to work along these lines to help out the probation officer and supplement his work and stand in relation to the boy as his friend.

MR. JOHNSON—Would it be possible to get the citizens of Massachusetts to differentiate between the words probation and parole? We would be so glad if you would.

MR. TILLEY—If you will give us a proper definition we will agree to observe it.

MR. LEONARD—Definitions are supposed to come from Massachusetts, but there has been a confusion here tonight, very much so, but I think we will clear that up at the next Conference, at least.

MR. BUTLER—There are a great many misunderstandings, I am sure, from some of the questions that have been asked and some of the terms that have been used, and it seems to me, regarding this question of probation and parole, we ought to come to some definite understanding. Among prison officers we speak of the man as paroled when he has once been in the institution and released therefrom, and we speak of a man under probation when he has been found guilty and released without going to the institution.

THE POLICE SYSTEM.

BY RICHARD SYLVESTER, PRESIDENT INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS OF POLICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

A well-regulated and energetic police department, conducted with purity, activity, vigilance and discretion is a principal blessing to a community. Upon this depends, in so great a degree, the comfort, happiness and security of the people that too much labor and attention can not possibly be bestowed in rendering the system complete. That much remains to be done in this respect no one will deny. All ranks and classes must bear testimony to deficiencies in many quarters which detract from the security to both life and property. We boast in vain of those blessings which are born to us if the depraved part of the municipality is suffered to deprive us of the pleasure of moving about in any direction after dark without danger of being accosted if not assaulted by their kind.

Crime was, is, and always will be, and it will follow increase in population and advance with prosperity in these progressive, if not extravagant times, as did excesses and dissipations in the period of ancient Rome, unless the preventive, detective and penalizing measures are modernized to meet conditions.

The police force should in the first place have afforded it for enforcement laws that will restrain as well as punish vice. Laws doubtfully expressed with severe punishment as the leading feature are of poor avail. Police action taken along the lines of main strength and awkwardness is attended with grave fears and dangers, and yet there are hundreds of daily instances where the fugitive criminal is apprehended upon telegraph information forwarded from the scene of the crime to another jurisdiction where there exists no law for the arrest and detention of a fugitive upon receipt of such information and where habeas corpus proceedings would prevail.

That the novice should suffer the punishment attached to conviction and the adroit and old reputed criminal escape through the tricks and devices of disreputable practitioners has been too much in vogue and against the furtherance of substantial justice.

This discrimination is best evidenced by the admitting to bail of hardened criminals, the bond being furnished by a bonding syndicate for a fee, probably paid from the proceeds of crime; the subject fails to appear for trial, the bond having been satisfied

from the same source from which its purchase was had, and that is the last heard of the case.

The law should be such that a humane and proper distinction could be made between the first dawn of depravity and the finished villain.

Punishment should always be proportioned to the end it is meant to serve. Where death does not follow the crime as a penalty, the reformation and future usefulness of the culprit should constantly form a leading feature in criminal jurisprudence. But we are wandering from the topic—the police as a preventive agency. The well organized body should be beyond the influence of politics. The political engine has already carried many otherwise capable police institutions on to destruction. Of all the branches of the municipal organizations the police department should be without politics and political control. A life tenure during a faithful performance of duty should be assured its membership and the arrangement should be so elastic that its composition could be elevated or reduced as it might be most advantageously utilized by the directing head. To those who comprise a department adequate compensation for service should be paid that a proper living may be had to the avoidance of constantly recurring temptation, and the strongest inducements to proper conduct are classification and promotion of members after periods of honest service and their retirement on pensions in later years and pensions to a dependent family in case of the death of the father in line of duty.

Since the organization of an international police association, where the many features which add to good work and permanency of police forces have been repeatedly advanced, earnest representatives have profited by the teachings and wonderful improvements in our forces morally and physically have followed. Members are contending for first places in efficiency and appearance with their respective forces. Many of them have become students in their work, giving time to making innovations and adopting up-to-date facilities. Over two hundred police heads as an out-growth of this combination are now co-operating as was never known before, and this effort has done more to place the police on a footing to nearer compete with modern criminal conditions than anything that has happened in recent years. In their annual conventions papers of interest are discussed and co-

operation with corrective agencies, juvenile courts, probation and truant officers, prison authorities and those interested in the welfare of down-trodden and fallen humanity is strenuously urged and in the last few years practical results have been decidedly manifested.

The principal police departments of the United States have supported in Washington for several years a National Bureau of Criminal Identification, where the records and Bertillon measurements of about thirty thousand criminals are classified and filed, together with information pertaining to each. When an unknown is apprehended by the police in one section inquiry of this bureau is supposed to reveal the name and record of the person if he was ever arrested before. From this same source the records of hardened criminals are furnished for use in the courts, and in this connection where disease, mind-wrecking habits and weaknesses are apparent, that justice may not miscarry, the courts are afforded knowledge of the same through the inquiring authorities. This bureau has recently undertaken to acquaint the heads of the police forces with the conduct during confinement of discharged convicts from the various prisons, whether good or bad, in order that a proper estimate may be accorded him who by encouragement might become a good citizen and him who by proper surveillance might be again found at wrongdoing. The main object is to deter the hounding by the police of those who by life in prison have shown a disposition to do better when out; rather to encourage them to proper conduct and improvement. The general government has in a measure identified itself with this bureau and it is expected that in another year it may become a thorough government institution with laboratories for the study of man from the scientific standpoint and as a place for the centralization of information pertaining to those who would be enemies to the state.

The tremendous strides that have been and are being made in every direction in the world's affairs, the closer relationship between this and foreign countries in police transactions, has brought about a condition, an opportunity that can profitably be utilized by this country. It should not be lost. The establishment of such a bureau as that to which I have referred would bring about a relationship between the police systems of the world such as never was before, to the end, that a stronger preventive agency of crime would exist than was ever before known.

When we consider the treatment accorded prisoners by the police today as compared with ten years ago, the establishment of houses of detention through the efforts of the police, in order that the juvenile and first offender may be free from the contaminating influences which follow confinement with the hardened classes, the police invoking the parent to correct a child for committing a misdemeanor, the padded cell, the patrol and a score of other humane features or appliances originated or inaugurated by the police, we must accord some commendation. The police individually should have encouragement from the good citizens for their meritorious acts, omissions and commissions of the law makers and law administrators should not be laid at their door. The strong influence exerted by such an organization as Charities and Correction for wholesome nonpolitical police organization acts should be exercised. Let that organization upon which all the other branches of the municipality must depend be free and untrammeled in the distinct work it is expected to perform.

TREATMENT OF JAIL CASES.

BY HARRIS R. COOLEY, DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC SERVICE, DIVISION OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

The torture idea of punishment has lingered long. There has been a criminal treatment of crime. The growth of the humane feelings and the higher sentiments of fraternity are now entering into this darker sphere of life. The fundamental difficulty lies in the attitude of society toward the so-called criminal classes. What is deeply needed is not a reformation in the details of prison management, but a realization of a broader spirit of brotherhood in our dealing with these classes. With this changed attitude and feeling, there will be worked out methods of organization and administration which will make for human betterment.

Society must put away all feeling and thought of revenge and vindictive punishment. There are only two reasons for depriving our fellow-men of their liberty—the protection of society and the best interests of the criminal. It may be necessary for the state to keep one of its wards permanently and safely in its charge, but it can never afford to be brutal and cruel to even its weakest and

meanest member. Russia has been savage to her Siberian exiles, and Russia has to suffer more because of her brutality than the unfortunate people whom she has banished. A civilized society can not afford to flog and torture and hang even its enemies. They were wise words which Shakespeare put in the month of the gentle Portia, as she speaks of the quality of mercy:

> "It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
> Upon the place beneath; it is twice blest;
> It blesseth him that gives and him that takes.
> 'Tis mightiest in the mightiest; it becomes
> The throned monarch better than his crown;
> It is an attribute to God himself;
> And earthly power doth then show likest God's
> When mercy seasons justice."

Society may also deal with the prisoner for his own best good, but it is only just that even then there should be thrown about him conditions and opportunities for right and decent living. He should be treated, not as a member of a hopeless, outcast class, but as an individual with a human history. We must know, as Victor Hugo says, "The path up which the crime has come." We must feel the weight of past wrongs which he bears upon his shoulders. We must realize the difficulties of his environment. To know all may be to forgive all. To understand him as a man with a human past and with possibilities of a human future is fundamental to our right treatment of him. It is the changing attitude of society toward the criminal which will work out the solution of our problems which are best adapted to the different stages of social development and to the different degrees of crime.

The purpose of this paper is to speak especially of the less serious offenders and the misdemeanants who are usually committed to the local jail, workhouse, or the house of correction. In our large cities, masses of these offenders—one hundred or even two hundred —are rushed in a single day through the police court, and a part of them are sent to prison in wagon loads. In a few moments the judge must determine the facts of guilt, the need of imprisonment, and the length of sentence. When our institutions are molded by the thought of curing men, the length of sentence will be left to those in charge, as in the case of an insane asylum or a hospital ward. These people are brought to the prison in all stages of physical, mental and moral ailment. They can not be intelligently treated en masse, but each must have individual attention, de-

manded by his special form of disorder or malady. They are pitifully human. If they are hurt on prison machinery, they bleed. They are abnormal, largely as a result, directly and indirectly, of our social and industrial conditions.

To place the abnormal in

A NORMAL ENVIRONMENT

is a fundamental principle which applies to all. To take men, women and children from the abnormal environment of the slums and place them in another abnormal environment of the old time prison is irrational. While in all cases it will not cure, yet, the first and just thing to do is to place these abnormal people again in a normal environment. We are beginning to learn that this is a rational method of treatment for tuberculosis cases, for insane patients, and it is just as rational and just as effective in treating those who are morally unsocial and abnormal. In accordance with this principle, there is a growing sentiment in favor of moving our penal institutions to the country, where more of the prisoners can work in the fields under the open sky. The practical result of experiments has demonstrated the efficiency of the normal environment method in curing abnormal developments, whether of the body, the mind, or the heart.

The Cleveland House of Correction is being transferred to a great tract of land of a thousand acres ten miles from the Public Square. It is known as

THE CORRECTION FARM.

The Trusties' Lodges have been erected, and for over a year from fifty to one hundred prisoners have worked out on the great Farm in quarrying and crushing stone, in making roads, digging ditches, and in other work in the fields, orchards and gardens. In all, two thousand prisoners have served time on this Correction Farm. There has been little trouble with escapes. The guards are really foremen. The confidence placed in the men is seldom betrayed. When the whole institution is moved to the Farm, we feel confident that fully one-half of the prisoners can work in the fields, while the rest of them will have much better opportunities in the large open courts. The sunlight and fresh air cure men of moral as well as physical and mental ills.

According to the last report of the National Commissioner of Labor, convict or prison labor reaches its highest per cent. of efficiency in farming and roadmaking. These out-of-door employments are much better for the prisoners, and more productive for the state.

The new House of Correction will be in three separate divisions: the trusties, the semi-trusties and the regular prison department. The Trusties' Lodges form a distinct group of buildings by themselves. They have their own dining room and light, airy, dormitories without cells, without bars.

Though most of our prisoners are serving short sentences, an efficient

NIGHT SCHOOL

has been maintained for the last three years. Every evening one hundred or more prisoners are gathered, in groups, about rectangular desks, with the teacher standing in the center. With the exception of the parole officers, the teachers are also prisoners. The school is self-governing, and the men take pride in its good order. Here is a group of foreigners learning to read and write the English language; here another group studying arithmetic or even the higher mathematics; here another group working at sign painting —anything which will help the men when they go out. Good thoughts and a hopeful outlook take the place of the evil brooding of the gloomy cell.

Out of the kindly fellowship of the night school, and of the attempt at betterment in the institution, has grown the

BROTHERHOOD HOME.

There are two difficulties which confront a released prisoner. The first is to find a job. Many employers will have nothing to do with a man whom they know has been in prison. The second difficulty is to live until the first payday. A released prisoner is generally penniless. The shop in which he works may not pay for two weeks, and then ten days of that pay may be held back. On this rocky road of finding a job and of living until payday, many a man has stumbled and fallen who left the prison doors with firm resolves and good intentions.

One of the paroled men found another ex-prisoner who had been a fellow-teacher in the House of Correction night school. Together

they secured employment and a temporary place for board and lodging. As soon as they became self-supporting and had together a small fund, these men, knowing from bitter experiences the difficulties in the way, found a job for a third prisoner who was yet in the house of correction, and easily secured his parole on condition that he was to go to work. They shared with him their own lodgings and furnished to him meal tickets with the understanding that as soon as he had received his wages he was to reimburse them. The three prisoners worked along until the third one had his payday. The amount which he paid back, added to what the others had accumulated, started a fund with which they were able to support others. They found jobs, secured the parole of prisoners and immediately took them to their work and took care of them until their payday came.

On the first of January, 1906, they entered into a more formal association with eight members, and moved into a house, the use of which has been furnished to them rent free. Their entire possessions were carried in a basket. Using credit, which was extended to them to the amount of nearly a thousand dollars, they equipped this new home with the ordinary furnishings of kitchen, dining room, living room and dormitories. With larger quarters, the membership grew rapidly and is now maintained at about forty-five, the limit of the accommodations of the house. One parole officer gives his entire time to the Brotherhood. They have continued to find employment for the prisoners, usually securing their release in the evening, to go directly to the home and in the morning to start out to their work. There has been less than ten per cent. loss on account of non-payment of board bills. Out of every one hundred, ninety have made good financially.

In the ordinary sense of the word, it is not a charitable institution at all. Kind friends have offered financial help in maintaining the house, but it has been refused. To secure the Home, the men usually give orders on their first pay. The rate charged is four dollars per week and, with mutual co-operation, the indebtedness of nearly one thousand dollars was paid in eight months out of the profits and voluntary contributions of the members themselves. If any one is tempted to defraud the Brotherhood he realizes that he is taking advantage not of some kindly disposed benefactor who supports such a home, but rather he is taking advantage of men who have toiled hard to earn their money.

Since January 1, 1906, over four hundred men have been aided by the helpful influence of the Home. They work in twenty different places and form a most valuable employment bureau. They are on the lookout for jobs for other members. In seventeen months these men who, by some, are regarded as worthless, have paid into the Home for board and other expenses more than ten thousand and five hundred dollars which they have earned by honest work in the shops and factories of Cleveland. Besides this, most of them have good clothes and some have bank accounts. One of the members who has gone to another city is earning over a hundred dollars per month, and his last letter to the parole officer says: "Such a change in my life seems miraculous. I am coming into my own." Some of the men remain for a long time at the Brotherhood, and others return to their broken homes after demonstrating their ability to do better. We have some of our men who keep the anniversary of their being sent to prison.

The furnishings of the Home, including a piano, represent an outlay of over seventeen hundred dollars, which has all been paid. Good cheer, warmth and music within help the men to keep from the night temptations of the streets. If a permanent building can be provided, there seems no reason why the Brotherhood can not continue and enlarge its usefulness.

Only those who have to do with released prisoners can understand the practical help of the Brotherhood. Its doors are open when men most need a kindly shelter and an opportunity to work. Its comfortably dressed men going and coming from their daily toil inspire a new hope in the paroled prisoners—that they, too, can "make good." That the men are helping others who have been in the same trouble is an additional stimulus to right living. The Brotherhood furnishes this immediate opportunity to work, to live, and to help some other fellows who are down.

Another part of our treatment of jail cases is to get prisoners out of jail by means of

A PAROLE SYSTEM.

During the first administration of Mayor Johnson eleven hundred and sixty men and women were pardoned or paroled. During the previous administration only eighty-four were thus treated. This radical departure from the traditional method, of course, aroused the cry of "jail deliveries." In the six years over four thousand

have been pardoned and paroled. In the eyes of the law these men are our prisoners during the life of the parole. They are required to report to us, as a rule, once a week. By a card system, a careful record is kept of their conduct and of their reports. If they are taken back to the House of Correction, their stay is extended to about three times the original sentence. Three parole officers and one parole matron have been added to the force to look after these cases. Special leniency is shown to first offenders. For a man condemned to prison for the first time there is a psychological moment in which practical help can be wisely given. To act too soon would belittle the wrongdoing. To wait too long would embitter and harden into a criminal life.

Only fourteen per cent. of our paroled men have been returned to the House of Correction. This is less than the percentage of returns of those who were released by working out their entire time in prison under the old regime. This may indicate that wise selections have been made or, what is more probable, that our attitude of confidence in them has added to the virility of their good resolutions. Many of our men are doing exceedingly well. One young man, a lineman, who had just been paroled, gave his life for his fellow-workman. His sentence was fifty dollars, costs, and thirty days for stealing. He had been caught in the act. A hungry wife and child and a special opportunity to take had overcome him in time of weakness, but he was not a thief in his heart.

Our parole system has been especially effective in the cases of

NEGLECTED FAMILIES.

In the old method, the man was taken to prison, and the family, in want, bore the heaviest part of the punishment. When the father of the family comes to himself and begs for the opportunity to take care of his wife and children, this opportunity can be given with most rigid restrictions, for he must report each week as to his work, his earnings, and where he spends his evenings, the report being countersigned by his wife. We have one case, extending over a period of sixteen months, where the man is not even permitted to draw his own pay, but the check is sent to our office and the wife comes to us for her husband's wages. During this time our books show that she has drawn eight hundred and twenty-five dollars, or more than fifty dollars per month. The man himself is weak, and what he needs is not a prison cell, but some form of practical help to overcome his weakness.

Cases of intoxication have been sent to the workhouse again and again. Jerry Donovan and Tom O'Malley have been sent to the workhouse over ninety times each for intoxication, and are not yet cured. Libby Kelly has been sent seventy times. In twenty-four years she spent sixteen of them in the workhouse. She said to me: "I don't think they have done me much good out here," and I had to reply: "I am afraid that is true." Four men that I have known well have committed suicide in their desperate struggle with drink. We have tried drink and drug cures, in a few cases with marked success, but others would have been successful if we could have controlled their after environment. A few men have been wise enough to stay with us on our Farm as members of the colony rather than as prisoners. As they have easily earned their own living, they have not been a public charge. With the help of an indeterminate sentence, we would be able to hold such cases in a normal country environment, free from the temptations of city life, in which they have demonstrated their utter inability to stand.

Many prisoners have been paroled at the expiration of their days. In Ohio a part of the sentence is usually fine and costs, thus making imprisonment exchangeable into a fine. The well-to-do can pay the fine and go out free. The poor must remain in prison. While not technically so, yet it is really

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT,

or for being poor. Of the eleven hundred and sixty who were pardoned and paroled in the first two years, over nine hundred of them could have gone out before we even considered their cases if they could have paid the amount of fine and costs. Our position has been this: If, for any reason, a man should be kept in the workhouse thirty days, he should be kept the thirty days whether he has five cents, five dollars, five hundred dollars, or five hundred thousand dollars. A man who tries to steal a franchise or a canal or a million dollars is in need of correctional treatment just as much as the man who tries to steal a ham or an overcoat.

In cases of the women, so many of whom our social and industrial conditions are crowding toward lives of shame, an effort has been made to teach them, in our night school, sewing, plain cooking and the elements of domestic service. It is the purpose of the parole matron, so far as possible, to help them back again to lives of usefulness and virtue.

The attitude of fellowship and helpfulness to the unfortunate men and women in prison may sometimes seem to be lost, but even the hardened prisoner must go forth with the consciousness that he has had a chance. On the other hand, there must come back to society a large, reflex blessing in its effort to help even the weakest and most undeserving of its members. To be helpful to those in prison should be not an unusual manifestation of kindness and condescension, but the ordinary continuous attitude of a man toward his fellowman. It is not simply a good sentiment, but a rational method of social evolution. This spirit will develop the probation and parole systems. Its discipline will be, not the severity of brutality, but the firmness of kindness. It will strive to give to the prisoners opportunities for more normal lives out of doors and under the open sky. It will open prison doors and offer a chance for honest lives. It will give attention to the curing and prevention of crime. It will not be satisfied until we realize righteous social and industrial conditions, so that opportunities for decent, honorable living shall be open to all the children of men.

Statistics.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY JOHN KOREN, EXPERT SPECIAL AGENT OF THE U. S. CENSUS BUREAU, CHAIRMAN, BOSTON, MASS.

To the superficial observer we, as a people, appear to be infatuated with the numerical method of expressing facts. The statistical mills of this country, large and small, grind unceasingly, and their output is unrivaled, as a German critic says, "at least in quantity." Annual or periodical contributions are made to their grist by charitable and correctional institutions and agencies, state and local, public and private, throughout the length and breadth of the land. Even in our special fields of endeavor there seems to be no end to the collection and printing of what is dignified by the appellation "statistics."

Yet, must we calmly take for granted a keen appreciation on the part of workers in charities and correction of the value of statistics as applied to their own activities? Perhaps few would have the temerity to deny the usefulness of the statistical method in working out the problems peculiar to this Conference. But is there not among us much unspoken resentment against it, and not simply because of the character and multiplicity of what passes current as statistics? To very many the statistical method continues to mean a cumbersome vehicle for the statement of barren facts and unprofitable conclusions. It is not for lack of statistical output that there are so many unwilling adherents of the statistical method, but because the product is unfinished, largely indigestible and therefore does not appeal to the intellectual appetite. Now, the mere collection of facts and items translated into numbers is not statistics. Busy men and women have not the time, even if the ability is there, to disentangle real information from jumbled and unrelated masses of data. Unclassified, unorganized, and uninterpreted figures in tabular form, from which no concise presentation can be made of the significant facts, merely serve to bring the statistical method into disrepute.

If these seem rather trite observations, they are nevertheless unpleasantly necessary. Only as present shortcomings are recognized will the call for constructive work in our field of statistics meet with the proper response. And construction is the chief end and business of this committee. But if candor compels the confession that not all who would be such are statisticians, and that the world would not lose greatly should much of the current statistical material never see daylight, there is still a larger aspect of the situation.

We usually find out about things in proportion to our desire to know about them. The primary purpose in collecting and interpreting facts bearing upon the many problems confronting this Conference, is not to satisfy the curiosity of students of social conditions, or to illuminate social theories, but to secure a better working basis in efforts to deal sanely and efficiently with questions of charity and correction. If we flounder about for want of a sound working basis, unable to measure the problems themselves as well as the results of our efforts to deal with them, is not the implication that we lack more or less the desire to know the things that might supply such a basis? Let us apply this test to some of the classes of problems with which we are immediately concerned.

Take the case of the feeble-minded. We have not even a trustworthy quantitative measurement of the feeble-minded, let alone one that would disclose the burden of crime, vice and pauperism which results from the uncared-for condition of uncounted thousands of these unfortunates, and the burden of economic waste borne by their kin. We do not overlook isolated instances of competent statistical inquiry in regard to the feeble-minded, such as that furnished by progressive Indiana; but they are so exceptional as merely to make more emphatic the need of such investigations elsewhere. Here we battle largely in the dark because against unmeasured forces. What is true generally of the feeble-minded is in a more comprehensive sense true of the great class of epileptics.

Despite comparatively voluminous reports on the insane, it would require peculiar hardihood to maintain that the statistical method is being satisfactorily applied to this class by institutions or by states. The numerical strength of the insane outside of institutions is generally unknown, and current institutional statistics are not of a kind greatly to promote knowledge of insanity as a social phenomenon.

The woeful lack of competent statistics of poverty and pauperism will be considered in a separate paper at our meetings and may be passed by in this report.

In the case of the dependent children, even bare enumerations of numbers are conspicuously wanting, not to mention intelligent statements of facts that would enable one to learn something about the efficiency of the methods employed and the results accomplished by the multiplicity of agencies devoted to this end of charity. But this is only a part of the problem. The other is to furnish knowledge how to combat the conditions from which dependence springs. What are we contributing toward such knowledge?

Two or three states have at last secured a statistical working basis which makes it possible to provide intelligently for that appealing class of sufferers, the blind, particularly the adult blind, and which promises, moreover, to lead in large measure to the prevention of the needless growth of this class. But what of the other forty-seven or forty-eight states and territories?

In the general domain of charity and benevolence what a hodge-podge of unsifted material confronts us in the shape of statistics—a multitude of unessential facts, a paucity of the essential, and the latter not always get-at-able because unorganized. It is almost an unworked field.

As for statistics pertaining to the problems of correction, Professor Freudenthal, the German investigator, put it mildly when he recently said about American conditions: "They are lacking complete statistics in each case." What he meant to convey was that we not only lack the statistical basis for measuring the crime movement, its relative growth or diminution, but leave practically unworked the primary sources of information—the records of the police courts, grand juries and prosecuting officers. A statistical efficiency test has never been applied to our systems of penology as a whole. Isolated institutions and one or two states are attempting it, but these are wholly exceptional instances.

The most important problem in correction is without doubt that of juvenile delinquency. We are applying to it new methods through the juvenile court and probation. Are we testing our theories and practice by statistical investigation of results? Our bookkeeping is for the most part so imperfect that we do not know, even approximately, the extent of local juvenile delinquency problems.

The necessary limits of this report forbid the enumeration of all the questions before the Conference which need elucidation by the statistical method. There has been space to mention only a few general ones.

It may seem to some as if the suggested lack of statistical information is of a kind that can only be supplied by a federal or state agency. Within certain limits this is true. But let us remember that federal as well as state bureaus only operate in response to definite impulses from without. They do not generally move in the direction of statistical inquiry except as public opinion demands it. If, then, governmental agencies do not furnish needful facts that cannot be got by other means, be sure the trouble lies with ourselves, that we do not sufficiently demand them.

Moreover, our concern is not solely with statistical information bearing upon the general aspects of problems in charities and correction, but with statistical information that will enable the individual institution and local agency to do the work allotted them in the most intelligent and therefore in the practically most efficient manner. And we must not lose sight of the fact that individual institutions, societies, etc., in immediate charge of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes, are the chief sources of information upon which the general agencies must depend for the proper raw material.

This standing committee has therefore acted wisely in the discharge of its difficult mission by beginning with the elementary things, not clamoring for outside aid but trying to improve the primary sources of information. Last year, at its instigation, the Conference adopted a resolution recommending that state charitable and correctional institutions be requested to give one page for each year in their reports setting forth a few elementary facts in conformity with the blank prepared by the committee on statistics. This year the committee submits a simple schedule for the use of relief societies. These matters are referred to, not by way of showing what has been accomplished, for we are still at the very threshold of our mission, but merely to indicate the line of work so far marked out.

Let us restate our goal and the means by which it possibly can be reached. Our immediate aim should, in the first instance, be to secure the adoption of uniform schedules for reporting

financial and social statistics by charitable and correctional institutions and agencies of every well-defined class represented within the Conference.

In financial matters it would almost seem as if national patterns might be fashioned that would serve the needs of all. In order to report social facts adequately several schemes must be devised to fit the various kinds of agencies and classes of institutions. An admirable scheme for presenting facts pertaining to poor relief would have few factors in common with an equally admirable scheme covering the social facts pertaining to a reform school. The diversity of interests to be served makes the task of the committee difficult. Greater uniformity may not be hard to attain; but it means little or nothing unless it also stands for greater efficiency.

The work before us is not one of a year or two but of many years. It may fairly be doubted whether in the end much can be accomplished by a committee on statistics whose personnel changes every year. Would it not be better to continue from year to year a small group, composed so far as possible of experts, who could deal with the subject as a whole? Such a committee should call to its aid one or two persons of practical training and experience representing each of the special departments of the Conference. Such a plan would make for systematic progress. The work of such a committee should not only be to prepare uniform schedules for original entry and blanks for periodical summaries, but also to furnish plans for organizing and interpreting statistics. Hardly less reprehensible than the dearth of social facts is their inadequate interpretation or the absence of any attempt at interpretation. How can conditions in this respect be improved? Competent tabulation and analysis of statistical matter requires some aptitude and special training. Individual institutions and organizations can not always be depended upon to supply persons for this sort of work. So far as state institutions and the charitable and correctional agencies under state supervision are concerned, it is primarily the duty of the state boards to classify and analyze the raw material of statistics. And it should be the business of the committee, when need be, to supply state boards with plans for this task. It should also stand ready to lend its aid to private societies where no central office is prepared to take the lead.

Is this program too ambitious? Surely not, if we admit that systematic knowledge is the basis of the most efficient social work, whether it be a question of legislation or of ordinary practical endeavor. Let us not be misunderstood. The mission of the committee is not to add to the irksome task of those who must occupy themselves more or less with the recording of financial and social facts and their presentation in public reports. We shall have failed unless we help to simplify methods of garnering the essential things, and unless we show how statistical material can be made fruitful through brief, concise and expressive interpretation. The final end to be sought is not additional food for theoretical discussion, but working knowledge that makes for greater social efficiency.

PROPOSED SCHEDULE FOR USE OF RELIEF SOCIETIES.

1. Total number of different cases dealt with during the year. (Notes a, b, c.)
2. Total number of individuals in these families at the time of application. (Note d.)
3. Number of new cases dealt with during the year. (Notes a, e.)
4. Number of cases to which some definite service was rendered by the society, in the way of relief or advice. (Note f.)
5. Total expenditures for all purposes, excluding investments and repayment of loans.
6. Total amount of money spent in relief. (Note g.)
7. Number of cases for whom this relief was used.
8. Total amount of money spent for service to the families. (Note h.)
9. Total amount of money spent for administrative expenses and supervision, and industrial agencies for the benefit of families in their homes.
10. Total number of calls made by employes of the society to or in behalf of cases.
11. Total number of calls made by applicants at all offices of the society. (Note i.)
12. Total number of volunteers who have given active service during the year.

a. As friendly visitors.
b. As members of committees.
c. In other ways.

Note a. No case is to be counted more than once.

Note b. "Case" is used to denote the family unit, whether it consists of a single individual or fifteen.

Note c. This figure should include all cases taken up for investigation or treatment; cases investigated for hospitals or dispensaries, cases which could not be found, cases in the care of friendly visitors who are working in co-operation with agents of the society, should be included; on the other hand, cases left entirely in charge of friendly visitors, without supervision by the society, and cases with whom there has been no communication during the year, should not be counted.

Note d. No individual is to be counted more than once.

Note e. A "new case" is one of which the society had no record previous to this year. This figure is, of course, a part of the total number given in 1.

Note f. This figure also is a part of the total number given in (1). It should include cases given help in securing employment and cases helped by advice as well as those in which material relief in any form is provided; it should not include cases that could not be found, cases referred directly to some other society or institution, or cases merely investigated or reported on to a hospital, dispensary, day nursery, society, or individual.

Note g. This should include money from the funds of the society, money raised by the society for individual cases from whatever source, *provided it is administered by the society*, and money given to the society to be used for special purposes (such as Christmas cheer or fuel or fresh air), or for special kinds of cases. It should not include amounts, or estimates of amounts, given to families under care, even if at the request of the society, *unless the money has passed through the society's hands.*

Note h. This figure should include the salaries of district agents, visitors, nurses, collectors for stamp savings and small savings in other forms, visiting housekeepers, agents in charge of help for homeless men and employment agents, where such agents are part of the regular equipment of the society, etc., but not the expense of supervision.

Note i. By "applicants" are meant all persons who come for assistance of any sort, whether or not they are, or later become, "cases dealt with": i. e., a call by a man who is directed to a lodging house or an employment bureau and not "taken up for treatment," no record being made of his case, should be included here.

DISCUSSION ON STATISTICS.

C. N. POND, Ohio—Having for some years been engaged in the Department of Statistics in the Voluntary Charities of Ohio, I have come to feel very earnestly that we need to improve our work in that particular. There can be no question as to the suggestive and educational value of figures as shown by these papers and remarks this afternoon. For instance, if it be true that 95 per cent. of vagrants and truants are defective in school, the lesson is very obvious. We must put our youth in as good condition as possible for their school work. If in a certain community fifteen girls are graduated from the High School and only two boys, the lesson is very obvious; the boys are neglecting their higher education. We must try to cultivate among the young men and the boys a sense of the very important fact that if they do not improve their opportunities they are crippling themselves for life. It has been my province to labor in the department of voluntary charities, and associated charities, especially, in the State of Ohio. Nearly all the statistics collected on national blanks by this Conference relate chiefly to public institutions and those departments that are managed by the State. If I understand things, our associated charities, our aid societies, our relief societies, our church benefactions and the whole mass of things outside of public official relief, have been neglected in the matter of statistics. I came to this Conference in a sense with an ax to grind. I brought here a press proof of our questions that we have been putting for a series of years to the various cities and towns of Ohio, and we may, perhaps, so address them again. I have brought them here to see if it is possible for us in some way to procure the aid and wisdom of this Conference. Our reasoning is this: The voluntary work must be taken care of. Was it not said last night, by the Mayor, that while we hold in a high degree of importance those things done by our public officials, yet, also, we must care for those that are done in a voluntary way. They are just as vital in their place as the other. I believe that no scheme of statistics has ever come to perfection excepting in connection with a series of properly digested significant questions. The question always has been and always will be a mighty educator and wonderfully suggestive. Moreover, it is very important not only that there should be well chosen questions, but that this series should be permanent. We should ask the same things as last year and the same next year—that is, unless there be some good reason for a change. And if our schemes are carefully adopted at the beginning there will not be much change. Could this matter be referred to a committee to take up later, so that we might get the suggestions of people who have thought and experience in these lines?

MR. JOHNSON—Last year a set of questions in connection with the State institutions was adopted by the Conference. The Secretary was instructed to send blanks to all State institutions throughout the United States and request them to adopt this form and to incorporate it in their regular annual report. That was done in a systematic way. A circular was sent to every Governor and to the chief financial officer of each State, to all the

boards of State charities and boards of control, and to their secretaries. Another circular was sent to the superintendents of every State institution in the United States, the prisons, reformatories, hospitals for the insane, schools for the defective, and all the rest. A large number of the institutions adopted the form, as you may see in their annual reports.

It may be well to take up this form which is offered by the chairman of the committee this year, and which will be put into your hands before you leave this meeting, and this offered by Mr. Pond, and some others, and ask the voluntary societies of all kinds to adopt this or some simple form. Last year the chairman of this committee called our attention to the fact that a distinguished sociologist from Europe came to inquire into our problems of pauperism, etc. He asked how many people are there receiving poor relief in the United States. Nobody knows. Nobody has the remotest idea of how many there are. Then he asked how many children are there in institutions for dependent children in the United States. Not even in one city could we be quite sure of the number. And he looked aghast, and said: "Is it possible that America is going on spending so much money and actually does not know what she is doing?" And that is actually the fact of the case. How can we tell whether we are going in the right direction? We don't know the rate we are traveling. To secure information from all the States at present is impossible. We shall have to be content with getting the statistics from a certain number of States—a sort of registration area. Now you will see in the Reports from States the best statistics we have been able to gather. You will see page after page with two, three or four States filling up almost every blank, others very irregularly, and others absolutely without statistics. It is a reflection upon any State that can not tell these facts about its people, and as a rule, it is only from States having boards of State charities that reasonably complete statistics come.

Mr. Hebberd. New York—We should have a definite basis for the collection of statistics. If this Committee on Statistics, working perhaps in co-operation with the United States Census Bureau, can decide upon some definite basis for the collection of statistics, a great good will have been accomplished. We take up the statistics of institutions and look at the death rate. One institution will have what perhaps seems to be a large death rate as compared with that of another institution, and yet in reality the institution which seems to have the larger may have the smaller rate. For example, a few years ago in the State of New York the question arose as to the comparative death rate of one large public institution to a number of private institutions. On the face of the returns the death rate in the private institutions seemed to be much larger, but, as a matter of fact, when the figures were properly computed the death rate in the public institution was shown to be much greater.

C. E. Faulkner, Minneapolis, Minnesota—Mr. Chairman: I heartily support the position of Mr. Hebberd. In the statistics of State institutions the record details of salaries and wages, food supplies, general supplies, improvements and repairs, are very complete, but there is need of a uniform plan for the classification of expenditures, for the setting forth of the

quantities and values of farm produce consumed, and for determining the inclusive character of expenses classed as ordinary and as distinguished from those which are properly classed as extraordinary.

In statistics relating to populations cared for, the daily average number of inmates supported, should be shown separate from the daily average number of those who care for them, so that all census reports may exhibit all necessary facts essential to uniform exhibits of per capita cost.

The task of bringing all the States into alignment in the matter of statistical accounting, is a formidable one, and well worthy of the aid of the national government. Such representatives of this Conference as are commissioned to this valuable service, and willing to work at it until established, deserve every encouragement which we can give, for unless the work is undertaken in a manner to insure satisfactory results, it will be a waste of time and energy.

Dr. Knopf, New York—I became a believer in the necessity of accurate statistics when I was assigned to answer certain simple questions in regard to insanity. I was utterly unable to do it, because there were no statistics which gave the simplest information. There was plenty of statistics, but not the right kind. In reports of hospital finances the extraordinary expenditure column has always been a dump for everything which the institution did not wish to appear in the ordinary expenditures. There is nothing to be got from that column. Any institution has been able to make any showing it desired under that plan.

Now there are three fundamental facts that we wish to know in regard to an institution. The first is how much money is put into the permanent investment, into buildings, land, furnishings, and the starting of the institution. The second is how much money does it take to keep the plant in repair, that is to say, we want to know what depreciation means. The third fact we want to get at is, what does it cost to carry on the institution? Those are three fundamental simple facts. We can subdivide them as far as we like, but we base our judgment on these three general divisions. The advantage of this division is that you compel everyone to tell the truth, or, rather, to tell the whole truth. We don't any of us intend to deceive, but we tell the things that we want to tell instead of telling the whole story. With these figures we are able to judge whether the investment has been a good one. A relatively large investment may mean a lower depreciation charge. Now we want to follow the depreciation charge over a series of years. It tells the story. Have you planned and constructed your buildings well? Then you can administer them economically.

W. Almont Gates, California—We all want statistics so that we can compare one institution with another, not only in our own State, but in the different States in the Union. I received from the Secretary of the Conference the blank prepared at the last Conference, and I have carefully endeavored to follow it out. The State Board of Charities of California has adopted these, or rather has adopted a series of blanks which include these, but go into a little more detail. But there is the difficulty of practice. It is almost impossible to get institutions to furnish statistics in the way to

make these comparisons. In our State there are special appropriations for salaries, for subsistence, and for general repairs, but in practice very frequently they manage to save some from the subsistence and use it for repairs, so that if you follow the appropriations you get one thing, and if you take the actual expenses from the hospital you get another. But it is easier with a State institution than it is with the county institution. We need some way to get correct figures from the county institutions. I have tried for four years to get superintendents of the county hospitals in California to know the difference between a hospital case and a custodial case. Our hospitals receive both sick and indigent poor, and the statistics of very few of the county hospitals are correct. When we go to the County Auditor, frequently he has charged into one fund, not only the cost of the county hospital in all its branches, but also the amount given for poor relief. If I get any of those statistics I have got to look over the account for a year and separate what it is costing the county for maintaining the poor from what it is costing the county to maintain the hospital. When I ask people to do this I am immediately reminded of the fact that the national government paid them for doing something of that kind last year, and if I pay them for doing this work they will make up the report. They are not paying any attention to the law, but the fact that the government has paid them once is the fact to be remembered until the government pays them the next time for the collection of statistics on the part of the State.

The statistics of California are not satisfactory, but they are the best that the Secretary of the State Board is able to get from the facilities at his command.

Now another point. The farms keep very little account of what they receive or what they grow. Occasionally a county hospital will keep an account. A certain hospital had kept a farm account in which it enumerated everything that the farm produced, crediting it to the farm and charging it up to the hospital. The newspapers attacked that hospital and accused it of gross extravagance, and cited that they paid so much a year for milk, while every quart of milk had been produced on the premises. It is rather discouraging for a hospital superintendent to keep track of the farm produce; the tendency is to make the expenses seem as low as possible.

Dr. Hill, New York—It is evident from consideration of statistics for a number of years that the first essential of a satisfactory system of general statistics is to have a uniform standard. We can not compare one State with another unless the two States are collecting substantially the same facts. We can not compare two institutions together unless the statistics of the two have the same basis. The difficulty we experience in considering the general subject, is not so much the lack of public statistics or the statistics of public institutions but the absence of any statistics of value from the great number of private charitable institutions and associations. In collecting statistics we can go to the State and county institutions with the law behind us and compel them to make reports. They may be full and correct, or incomplete, but we can compel them to comply with the law and then set to ourselves the task of going

over the statistics, sifting and tabulating the matter, which is of ultimate value.

We are interested not only in securing State institutional and other public statistics, but we want to know also what the general public is doing through its private charitable associations, and, therefore, if we are to obtain any satisfactory statistics covering charitable work, we must appeal to the legislatures to give to their State Boards of Charities authority to compel every institution or association, private as well as public, dealing with the problems of charity and kindred relations, to send annually a report to the State board. It is a difficult thing to secure that small measure of authority because private associations imagine that they are not, or should not, be subjected to the scrutiny of a State board. But when it is remembered that every dollar contributed to a private association is drawn from the general treasury of the public, as represented by the resources, assets and wealth of the people, we are entitled to know how such funds are used, for their use may affect the welfare of the public. If they are not wisely used and distributed the commonwealth will be harmed by the spread of pauperism and dependency. Therefore, we need wise fundamental legislation, legislation which will give authority to the State boards to compel proper reports and statistical information by all institutions, whether public or private.

STATISTICS OF POVERTY AND PAUPERISM.

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Poverty and pauperism are interchangeable terms, often confused in public discussions of problems of social reform. The real pauper is still a comparatively rare type in American life, but poverty and the poor have been with us practically from the settlement of the country and, no doubt, will remain an important element in our social economy to the end of time. The statistics of pauperism have a more definite value than exact data of poverty, because the former term is generally limited to a specific class and an easily recognized class, as a rule under continuous observation in special institutions. It is chiefly with regard to poverty that there is most urgent need of more statistical data and a more trustworthy method of analysis and interpretation of the more or less fragmentary facts secured. Probably no other branch of social science is more in need of trained intelligence than what is generally comprehended under "poor law administration" and "poor law reform." There is an immense amount of irresponsi-

ble and guesswork opinion upon this subject, which can only be set aside by a trustworthy and impartial presentation of the actual facts. The problem may be summed up in the statement that while it is the duty of the state to provide for the needs of the poor in cases of urgent need, it is an even greater obligation of government to provide aid in such a manner that its assistance shall not prove an encouragement to pauperism and destructive to the moral fiber of a large proportion of the workers of the nation. There is nothing so easy as to condemn the existing order of things and to prate vehemently about the unequal distribution of wealth, or to advocate radical measures of social reform. Yet the whole history of poor law administration is practically one continuous record of failure, and it may be said without fear of contradiction that every theory of social amelioration which is not based upon a thorough and comprehensive study of the actual facts is not only foredoomed to failure, but certain to be productive of a vast amount of harm, out of all proportion to the possible corresponding amount of good to the small number actually benefited.

There has, fortunately, been much progress during recent years towards a more rational basis of fact and opinion upon the subject of pauperism and poverty, and every such effort, whether on the part of government or private enterprise, is deserving of encouragement and praise. It is, however, not going too far to say that the recent reports of the census office on paupers in almshouses and benevolent institutions, prepared by Mr. John Koren, expert special agent, mark the distinct beginning of a new era of intelligent inquiry, which is necessarily the first step for a proper understanding of the existing state of social ill-health. For the first time we possess a definite basis of fact respecting the actual extent of pauperism in this country, or the true pauper element, as represented by the inmates of almshouses.

The census enumeration of almshouse paupers is for the year ending December 31, 1903, and on that date, according to the report, there were 81,764 persons in almshouses in the United States, including 29,320 women. In proportion to population, the pauper rate was 101.4 per 100,000, as compared with 116.5 for 1890 and 132.0 for 1880. As Mr. Koren selected December 31st as the date most appropriate to his purpose, the actual decline in pauperism was even greater during the intervening period than the indicated decline from 132 in 1880 to 101 in 1903, for it is

more than probable that the enumeration of paupers in almshouses in 1880 and 1890 was not as complete as the enumeration of 1903, which was carried on under more favorable circumstances as the result of more intelligent co-operation of state and municipal officials and permanency in the organization of the census office. It is quite difficult to realize the immense significance of the indicated decline in the rate of institutional pauperism, equivalent to 23.2 per cent., during a period of only twenty-three years, but if, however, the rate in 1903 had been the same as in 1880, there would have been 24,679 more inmates in institutions than was actually the case and the corresponding burden of public support would have been very much greater. It is not my intention to enter into a discussion of the causes responsible for this decline, but merely to point out certain facts, which are significant in themselves.

Before I proceed, however, I may briefly call attention to the corresponding data for England and Wales. On the first of January, 1903, the number of indoor poor of England and Wales was 217,319, or equivalent to 658.5 per 100,000 of population. If the same rate of indoor pauperism had prevailed in the United States there would have been 531,093 inmates of institutions instead of not quite 82,000 actually reported. While in 1880 the rate of indoor pauperism of the United States was 132.0, the corresponding rate for England and Wales was 681.5, or, in other words, more than five times as high. While the rate in the United States during the intervening period has declined 23.2 per cent., the corresponding decline for England and Wales has only been 3.4 per cent., and the present rate of indoor pauperism in that country is six and a half times as great as in our own.

PAUPERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES, 1902–1906.

	Population.	Indoor.	Rate per 1,000.	Outdoor.	Rate per 1,000.
1902	32,621,000	209,280	6.4	504,104	15.5
1903	32,997,000	217,319	6.6	514,206	15.6
1904	33,378,000	226,476	6.8	523,338	15.7
1905	33,763,000	238,316	7.1	570,613	16.9
1906	34,152,000	244,564	7.2	557,504	16.3

The question naturally arises whether these statistics are strictly comparable, and perhaps in a measure it is true that they are not. It would require a much more thorough analysis of the facts

than I have been able to make to warrant very far-reaching conclusions upon the facts quoted, but there can be no objection to the use of these statistics to indicate the probable tendency or changes in the industrial and social condition of the people, which, I believe, are indicated with approximate accuracy in the preceding remarks. In fact, if I had carried the analysis further and made use of the data for 1906, for which, unfortunately, we have not as yet corresponding information for the United States, it would have been shown that there has been a decided and rapid increase, actual as well as relative, in the amount of indoor pauperism in the United Kingdom during the last three years, while it is safe to assume that there has been no such increase, if any, in the amount of indoor pauperism in the United States.*

What is true of the United States as a whole is true, more or less, of the constituent parts, or the different states and cities. The actual amount of indoor pauperism does not as yet form a very formidable item in the annual budget of municipalities or counties; but regarding outdoor relief the information is less definite and not so reassuring. Most of our poverty is of a temporary character, even among the foreign element. The economic condition of the nation is one of such unexampled prosperity, with abundant opportunity for work at good wages, for practically every able-bodied person, that there is very little actual need of any considerable amount of poor relief. As a matter of fact, an immense sum is annually distributed on this account. It is unfortunate that there should be a lack of uniformity in the state returns of outdoor relief, but it is very probable that the burden has materially increased, and much more so than the economic condition of the country would warrant. There has been an immense development of private charitable enterprise during the last decade, which makes almost hopeless any attempt at statistical presentation of the facts. Much of what goes under the name of social reform is in fact charity under another name, in that the funds for such reforms are derived from those who do

*The chances of serious errors in statistical comparisons of this nature are so great that it is next to impossible to avoid them, even with the most careful attention to matters of minute detail. Thompson, in his "Political Economy" (1875), refers to an error on the part of Prof. Fawcett, the well known author of "Pauperism: Its Causes and Remedies," who had stated the number of paupers in Philadelphia as being 119,000, but who, by an oversight, "transmuted the number of dollars expended in poor relief in that city into the number of poor in receipt of relief." (pp. 238-239.)

not themselves participate in the benefits expected to be realized. There has not, I am afraid, been as much development of thrift and self-help as our increased prosperity would warrant, but here again it is difficult to adopt a definite measure upon the basis of statistical data alone. Yet there can be few more important duties of government than to institute from time to time what the English are wont to call "the state of the nation," which includes an inquiry into the actual amount of poor relief and the actual circumstances of poverty and self-help.

In foreign countries more has been done along this line than in our own, chiefly, of course, because the problem has been more pressing. A very interesting attempt at international comparison will be found in the second series of reports on British and Foreign Trade and Industry, being the memoranda, statistical tables and charts, prepared in the board of trade, with reference to various matters bearing on British trade and industrial conditions. This is a work of some 600 pages and includes a large amount of statistical information relating to poverty and pauperism in most of the important civilized countries, including the United States. The want of uniformity made it impossible on the part of the board of trade to utilize other than the state returns of New York, Massachusetts and Minnesota, which, while suggestive, are very far from being representative of the country as a whole. If, however, there should ever be an attempt to secure the true facts of poverty and pauperism in this country, it will be found that there is an immense amount of material which has never been properly presented or subjected to the necessary qualified and critical analysis. Yet there can be no more praiseworthy or useful undertaking than an inquiry of this kind, if for no other purpose than to settle from time to time the old question whether in this country, at least, it is true, as it has been held by Mr. Henry George and others, that the rich are growing richer and the poor are growing poorer. There are those who speak in glowing language of a golden age, or a period of time of plenty, when poverty, in this country at least, was practically unknown, and when the pauper was a rarity, so much so that institutions for his care and maintenance were seldom to be found. I do not think that this theory has the support of any considerable amount of statistical evidence, and I trust that I have not misconstrued the title of this address when I discuss, with necessary brevity, some of the facts regarding the extent

of pauperism in this country, practically from its settlement. The importance of a brief historical survey will be made more apparent at the end, followed, as it will be, by the suggestion that this Conference take into serious consideration the preparation of an American history of pauperism and poverty, derived from all of the available sources, much of which, as I have said before, has never been utilized for such a purpose.

Much valuable information regarding the administration of the poor law in the American colonies is to be found in a monograph on "The Poor Laws of Massachusetts and New York," by John Cummings, published by the American Economic Association under date of July, 1895. In this essay Mr. Cummings points out that as early as 1639 the colony of Massachusetts Bay regarded the settlement of those in receipt of aid and granted power "to determine all differences by lawfully settling and providing for poor persons." Houses of correction were built as early as 1699 under the supervision of the justices of the peace, and workhouses were authorized by the Act of 1743, which were under the supervision of the overseers of the poor and institutions for the public aid. Mr. Cummings speaks of the years 1789 to 1851 as the "dark period" in the history of the poor law of Massachusetts, and he refers to a report made by Mr. Josiah Quincy to the effect that during the thirty years ending with 1820, "the burden of the state increased fivefold, while the population did not double." A statistical table of expenditures on account of the poor previous to 1830, presented by the commission appointed by the legislature, was reprinted in the report of the State Board of Charities for 1864. I must necessarily limit myself to the mere mention of a few suggestive incidents, for even a brief survey of the development of poor law administration and the probable number of paupers, or amount expended in poor relief in a single commonwealth, would readily exhaust the limits of this address. What is true of Massachusetts, however, is true of practically every other state, and nowhere is this better brought out than in the admirable Digest of Charitable Legislation in New York from the earliest colonial times to the close of the nineteenth century, printed as an appendix to the annual report of the State Board of Charities for the year 1903. The record of legislation upon the subject indicates a not inconsiderable amount of pauperism and poverty from the commencement of settlement while New York was the Dutch colony of New Neth-

erlands, during the period 1609 to 1664, and also while it was an English colony, from 1664 to 1776. The digest makes it clear that there was then much poverty, at least at times, and an increasing amount of pauperism made necessary institutions for correction and relief.*

The historical development of the poor law of Connecticut has been traced with admirable thoroughness by Mr. Edward W. Capen, and published as one of the studies in history, economics and public law by Columbia University in 1905. These independent researches provide a basis for a scientific investigation of the history of pauperism and poor law administration in other states, but there is equal need for a study of the actual facts and the statistical data of inmates and expenditures, in sufficient detail to avoid broad generalizations, more or less inapplicable to particular conditions. Many of the earlier reports of State Boards of Charities, or of individual institutions for the relief of the poor, contain extremely valuable tables, illustrating the movement of the pauper element, changes in the class of inmates received, changes in the ages of admission, changes in nativity, in the ethnic elements, and many other interesting facts, more or less bearing upon the ultimate solution of the question as to what constitutes the ideal system of poor relief, adapted to the needs of a wealthy and prosperous nation.

What should be the principles of a statistical inquiry into pauperism and poverty, I do not propose to discuss at this time, but for general purposes it is plain that the essential facts of the number of persons supported and the amount expended in support, including the cost of administration, and the relation of these to the existing population, must form the basis of any rational inquiry into the subject. As far as practicable, the comparison of rates should be for a period of at least ten years, to indicate with approximate accuracy whether the poor rate tendency is in the right or the wrong direction. For a final and conclusive opinion, of course, a more minute inquiry into the facts will always be required. Extreme care is necessary to secure the accuracy of the returns, to make the data comparable, and more so where an attempt is made to compare the amount of

*For an extended reference to pauperism and poverty in the United States during the first quarter-century of our national existence, see Shouler's "Americans of 1776" (1906), and Bristed's "Resources of the United States," chap. vii, New York, 1818.

pauperism and poverty in one locality or state with another, or as the case may be, with foreign countries. Many useful illustrations of the fallacy of such comparisons may be drawn from the various works upon social conditions in the United States and foreign countries, but no such extensive treatment is possible on this occasion. The subject is an extremely interesting one and well deserving of the attention of those who are particularly interested in the present-day problems of social reform. As an indication, however, of a method adopted to practical requirements, and as a reference index to some of the more or less valuable material for a study of social conditions, I have brought together a series of tabulations to illustrate the usefulness of the statistical method in investigations of this kind.

What is probably the most extensive continuous series of data upon this subject is a return drawn from the annual reports of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity, covering half a century and ending with 1906. For convenience, I shall at this time only consider the results by ten-year periods, to show that while the average number of paupers in institutions in Massachusetts had decreased from 4.8 per 1,000 of population during the ten years ending with 1866, to 3.2 during the next decade, the rate since that time, considered by periods, has steadily increased from 4.3 during 1877-86 to 4.4 during 1887-96, and finally to 5.1 during the last ten years. (*Table 1.*)

There has also been a material increase in the per capita cost of support, but I only have the information for the period commencing with 1878 and ending with 1906. The rate, which during the first ten years had been 1.06, increased to 1.10 during the next decade, and finally to 1.29 during the last ten years. (*Table 2.*) The information for each year is given in the appendix.

An earlier tabulation of pauperism in the city of Boston was included in the census of that city for the year 1845. The return is for the period 1821-45, and shows the cost of pauperism for each year of the period. It appears that the per capita cost decreased from 65 cents during 1822-25 to 57 cents during 1841-45, with material fluctuations during intervening years, which are fully set forth in Table 3 of the appendix. I add hereto a table showing the number of paupers during the period 1837-45, indicating that the rate of pauperism declined from 3.9 per 1,000 during the first half of the period to 3.3 during the last. (*Table 4.*) The value of tabulations of this nature in connec-

tion with inquiries into the social and economic condition of the people, particularly with reference to industrial depressions, panics, etc., must be self-evident, provided, of course, that the returns are accurate and uniform for the periods considered.

For more recent years I append a table for Boston, showing the number of paupers during each of the years 1888-'05, also the cost of support, with the per capita figures for the years 1897-'05. The table indicates a decline in the number of paupers in proportion to population, from 2.3 in 1888 to 1.5 in 1905, while at the same time there has been a material increase in the per capita cost, from 19 cents in 1897 to 33 cents in 1905. (*Table 5.*)

The next two tables to which I direct your attention are from the classic report on Outdoor Poor in Hartford, Conn., published in 1891. The report is now comparatively rare and might well be reprinted by this Conference for the information and instruction of its members. The first of these tables shows the rate of indoor pauperism between 1881 and 1890, indicating a change from 15.9 per 1,000 during the first year to 20.0 during the last. (*Table 6.*) The second table shows the cost of relief for both outdoor and indoor poor between 1874 and 1890, indicating a progressive increase in the per capita cost from $1.27 during 1874-75 to $2.40 during 1886-90. (*Table 7.*)

While it is not my intention to discuss the causes of poverty or the conditions responsible for an increase or a decrease in the poor rate, I may properly include a reprint of a recent paragraph in the New York Sun of May 10, 1907, indicating extraordinary extravagance in the care of English paupers in almshouses: "The revelations of extravagance and luxury in the West Ham workhouse, which so astonished and alarmed London taxpayers recently, bid fair to sink into insignificance as compared with those of the latest paupers' palace, which is in the borough of Hammersmith. Its cost is $1,307,630. This paradise of the poor has been constructed in a spirit of lavish and reckless expenditure. The result is a structure equal if not superior to any nobleman's mansion in the land and vying in many respects with the finest hotels in London. . . . The sum of $1,675 per head has been spent for the housing of the paupers of Hammersmith. The cost of the cooking apparatus is $15 per pauper, and of electricity $12.50 per annum. A system of duplicate wiring

has been introduced similar to that which was rejected for Buckingham Palace a few years ago on the score of expense.''*

For the State of New York an immense mass of statistical material is available, which has never been thoroughly digested, or presented in a readily intelligible form. Even previous to the publication of the reports of the State Board of Charity, returns upon the subject of pauperism were made to the legislature, which are extremely valuable in connection with extensive inquiries into the early social and economic progress of the population of that state. Some of the earliest returns relate to the first quarter of the nineteenth century and are frequently referred to in published works of the period, but the most extended treatment is to be found in a small volume entitled ''A Report on Poorhouse and Jails,'' privately published in 1834. The report was by Mr. Saml. Chipman, primarily for the purpose of establishing the connection between intemperance, poverty and crime. In the revised statutes of 1829 local officers in charge of expenditures for the poor were required to make reports of the results of their labors to the Secretary of State, to be laid annually before the legislature. In 1842 these inquiries were extended to embrace the name, etc., of each pauper relieved or supported.†

A very extended compilation of the data for the period 1847-66 is to be found in the statistical appendix of the Manual of the Constitutional Convention, published in 1867. Subsequent to this date, the returns were published by the State Board of Charities in a uniform manner to 1894, and in the appendix I give a table showing for each year the active and relative number of paupers and the amount of expenditures for the period of 1868-94. This return refers to the inmates of county and city almshouses in New York State. (*Table 8.*) I omit a discussion of the results of this tabulation, which is extremely interesting, and useful for the purpose of an extended investigation into the causes and progress of pauperism in a leading American state.

*For a full understanding of the truly terrible consequences of an ill-advised poor-law administration, consult Nicoll's "History of the English Poor-Law, or Report of the Royal Commissioners on the Poor-Law," published in 1834; Macay's "English Poor" (London, 1889), and his "Methods of Social Reform" (London, 1896); also Helen Bosanquet's "Strength of the People," London, 1902.

†For a very interesting discussion of poverty in the United States at this early period, see "Public and Private Economy," by Theodore Sedgwick, New York, 1836.

For western states the published returns do not, as a rule, extend over long periods, at least not such as are given in the published reports, but much valuable material is to be derived from a careful analysis of the reports for individual years, and it is to be hoped that this will be done some time in the near future. Writing in 1826, Mr. Thos. Cooper, one of the earliest writers upon American political economy, in a dissertation upon poor laws, had occasion to quote from a report of the Secretary of State of New York for the year 1824, in which he points out that "the number of paupers in Illinois were too few to be noticed." To a certain extent that is almost true at the present time, considering, of course, the immense increase in population in the meantime. What is probably the earliest statistical publication upon pauperism is a compilation made, apparently, under the direction of the Secretary of State of the United States, bearing the title "Statistical View of the Population of the United States, 1790-1830," published at Washington, 1835. This report contains returns upon the amount and cost of pauperism in different states, but the returns are fragmentary and not strictly comparable. I may mention, however, that the report contains references to poor relief in Indiana, Ohio and Missouri. A return made to the State Board of Charities of Wisconsin in 1870 gives the number of paupers in county poorhouses in that year as 1,240 and the cost of support at $70,553, and in addition shows separately the number of poor persons supported and relieved by towns, etc., which was 2,560, and the cost of such support and relief, as reported by town and county clerks, was returned at $182,313. In proportion to population there were then 3.6 paupers per 1,000 in Wisconsin, while the per capita cost of support was 24 cents.

For Indiana I give an interesting table covering the period 1896-04. This table has been arranged to show the amount of poor relief by township overseers, according to race and sex. This is a most necessary division for all states containing at least 10 per cent. of negro population. The reports also contain interesting information as to the causes of relief and to facilitate ready reference and comparison I have calculated the percentage proportion of each cause for the two five-year periods. Probably a more scientific method would be to show the number of cases relieved for each cause in proportion to population. The

tables show that during 1904 the rate of poor relief was 16.7 for the white population against 46.2 for the colored. The rate was 16.2 for males and 18.6 for females. The tables indicate a very material reduction in the rate of poor relief for both races and the two sexes, for all combined the reduction was from 29.9 per 1,000 in 1896 to 17.4 in 1904, while there was also a reduction in the per capita cost of relief from 15 cents in 1896 to 11 cents in 1904. (*Table 9.*)

Some very interesting data on the cost of poor relief and support are contained in the annual reports of the infirmary of the city of Cincinnati. I have brought together the data for the period 1886-1904, which is complete with a few unimportant exceptions, showing respectively the number of applications of indoor and outdoor poor and the relative numbers in proportion to population, together with the total cost of relief and the per capita cost, calculated in the usual manner. (*Table 10.*)

As an interesting contribution to the study of pauperism in the South during an early period of poor law history, I include in the appendix a table showing the number of transient and permanent poor in the city of Charleston during each of the years forming the period 1830-48, included in the census of that city, published in 1848. (*Table 11.*) To this I add a table showing the cost of pauperism by periods from 1819 to 1848, indicating a material decrease in the per capita expenditures from 78 cents during the period ending with 1823 to 29 cents during the period ending with 1848. (*Table 12.*)

I have thought it worth while to bring together the data referred to, but which for want of space I have not been able to discuss at length. They indicate the sources of material for a history of pauperism and poor law relief and administration in this country, without which opinion upon our social progress or retrogression is mere guesswork and most likely to be seriously in error. That material of this nature should not be ignored in discussions of questions of social reform, or that in a measure it should not be permited to go to waste, is self-evident, and I trust that what I have said has made it clear that a more systematic method of investigation and research should be adopted to harmonize and co-ordinate the statistics of pauperism and poverty throughout the United States.

STATISTICAL APPENDIX TO THE STATISTICS OF POVERTY AND PAUPERISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

TABLE I.—TOTAL NUMBER OF POOR IN THE STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(STATE, CITY AND TOWN POOR)

1854–1906.

Years.	Population of State.	Average Number of Poor, State, City and Town.	Ratio of Poor to 1,000 of Population.
1854	1,112,629	5,683	5.1
1855	1,132,369	5,433	4.8
1856	1,152,109	5,944	5.2
1857	1,171,849	6,516	5.6
1858	1,189,788	6,883	5.8
1859	1,207,727	6,190	5.1
1860	1,231,066	6,232	5.1
1861	1,238,259	6,691	5.4
1862	1,245,452	6,933	5.6
1863	1,252,645	6,403	5.1
1864	1,259,838	5,827	4.6
1865	1,267,031	5,952	4.7
1866	1,305,095	5,873	4.5
1867	1,343,159	5,774	4.3
1868	1,381,223	5,879	4.3
1869	1,419,287	5,762	4.1
1870	1,457,351	5,409	3.7
1871	1,494,334	5,354	3.6
1872	1,532,258	5,259	3.4
1873	1,571,146	5,328	3.4
1874	1,611,022	5,741	3.6
1875	1,651,912	5,911	3.6
1876	1,677,351	6,597	3.9
1877	1,703,182	7,205	4.2
1878	1,729,410	7,462	4.3
1879	1,756,042	7,742	4.4
1880	1,783,085	7,467	4.2
1881	1,813,848	7,645	4.2
1882	1,845,128	7,839	4.2
1883	1,876,958	7,960	4.2
1884	1,909,314	8,278	4.3
1885	1,942,141	8,750	4.5
1886	1,998,171	8,907	4.5
1887	2,055,817	8,953	4.4
1888	2,115,020	9,014	4.3
1889	2,176,038	9,263	4.3
1890	2,238,943	9,535	4.3
1891	2,288,858	9,459	4.1
1892	2,339,901	9,893	4.2
1893	2,392,079	10,058	4.2
1894	2,445,423	11,316	4.6
1895	2,500,183	11,964	4.8
1896	2,555,434	12,193	4.8
1897	2,618,021	12,438	4.8
1898	2,679,040	13,200	4.9
1899	2,741,461	13,633	5.0
1900	2,805,346	13,808	4.9
1901	2,845,013	14,676	5.2
1902	2,884,680	14,473	5.0
1903	2,924,347	15,085	5.2
1904	2,964,014	15,883	5.4
1905	3,003,680	16,049	5.3
1906	3,043,348	16,778	5.5
1854–56	3,397,107	17,060	5.0
1857–66	12,368,750	63,500	5.1
1867–76	15,139,043	57,014	3.8
1877–86	18,357,279	9,255	4.3
1887–96	23,110,696	101,648	4.4
1897–06	28,508,970	146,023	5.1

See 2nd Annual Report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, Lunacy and Charity, 1880, p. 53, and 28th Annual Report of the State Board of Charity of Massachusetts, 1906, p. 156.

TABLE II.—TOTAL NET ANNUAL COST OF ALL PAUPERS—STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(STATE AND TOWN.)
1878–1906

Years.	Population.	Cost of Full Support.	Cost of Partial Support.	Total Cost.	Cost per Capita of Population		
					For Full Support.	For Partial Support.	Total*
1878.....	1,729,410	$931,776	$748,950	$1,680,726	$0.54	$0.43	$0.97
1879.....	1,756,042	1,113,096	668,954	1,870,311	0.63	0.38	1.07
1880.....	1,783,085	1,096,490	638,199	1,820,510	0.61	0.36	1.02
1881.....	1,813,848	1,120,670	610,247	1,810,037	0.62	0.34	1.00
1882.....	1,845,128	1,208,397	608,436	1,903,924	0.66	0.33	1.03
1883.....	1,876,958	1,297,652	600,435	1,993,905	0.69	0.32	1.06
1884.....	1,909,314	1,327,829	629,387	2,064,115	0.70	0.33	1.08
1885.....	1,942,141	1,452,163	663,886	2,232,829	0.75	0.34	1.15
1886..	1,998,171	1,509,270	675,742	2,314,012	0.76	0.34	1.16
1887.....	2,055,817	1,564,139	639,994	2,333,972	0.76	0.31	1.14
1888.....	2,115,020	1,507,388	647,627	2,372,813	0.71	0.31	1.12
1889	2,176,038	1,511,970	685,225	2,338,578	0.69	0.31	1.07
1890.....	2,238,943	1,616,544	670,379	2,442,676	0.72	0.30	1.09
1891.....	2,288,858	1,604,230	635,172	2,413,022	0.70	0.28	1.05
1892.....	2,339,901	1,612,299	666,766	2,467,088	0.69	0.28	1.05
1893.....	2,392,079	1,702,119	655,606	2,540,993	0.71	0.27	1.06
1894.....	2,445,423	1,770,247	700,453	2,621,926	0.72	0.29	1.07
1895.....	2,500,183	1,829,239	851,942	2,842,024	0.73	0.34	1.14
1896.....	2,558,434	1,980,687	786,307	2,944,204	0.77	0.31	1.15
1897	2,618,041	2,038,322	833,436	3,044,444	0.78	0.32	1.16
1898.....	2,679,040	2,138,847	927,542	3,243,308	0.80	0.35	1.21
1899.....	2,741,461	2,316,673	932,843	3,419,515	0.85	0.34	1.25
1900.....	2,805,346	2,438,289	898,498	3,487,459	0.87	0.32	1.24
1901.....	2,845,013	2,454,790	873,148	3,482,123	0.86	0.31	1.22
1902.....	2,884,680	2,687,528	896,935	3,743,134	0.93	0.31	1.30
1903.....	2,924,347	2,804,416	899,498	3,874,162	0.96	0.31	1.32
1904.....	2,964,014	3,019,986	907,116	4,093,125	1.02	0.31	1.38
1905.....	3,003,680	3,173,251	974,938	4,327,221	1.06	0.32	1.44
1906.....	3,043,348	3,945,247	976,180	5,091,489	1.30	0.32	1.67
1878–86.....	16,654,097	11,057,343	5,844,236	17,690,369	0.66	0.35	1.06
1887–96.....	23,110,696	16,698,862	6,939,471	25,317,296	0.72	0.30	1.10
1897–06.....	28,508,970	27,017,349	9,120,134	37,805,980	0.95	0.32	1.33

*Including "other expenses, chiefly administrative, in cities and towns."

See Twenty-Eighth Annual Report of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities—1906, p. 157.

TABLE III.—TOTAL COST OF PAUPERISM—CITY OF BOSTON, MASS.

Years Ending May 1st.	Population of City.	Cost of Pauperism.	Cost of Pauperism Per Capita of Population.
1821	44,835	$32,822	$0.73
1822	.....	.....	.....
1823	48,075	31,470	0.66
1824	49,782	32,869	0.66
1825	51,549	29,108	0.56
1826	53,379	32,392	0.61
1827	55,274	46,842	0.85
1828	57,236	35,090	0.61
1829	59,268	37,388	0.63
1830	61,392	41,667	0.68
1831	64,023	45,032	0.70
1832	66,766	45,870	0.69
1833	69,527	45,051	0.65
1834	72,506	37,480	0.52
1835	75,613	41,287	0.55
1836	78,853	48,287	0.61
1837	82,232	48,074	0.58
1838	85,756	50,501	0.59
1839	89,431	49,898	0.56
1840	93,383	63,502	0.68
1841	97,025	60,517	0.62
1842	100,809	61,351	0.60
1843	104,741	59,903	0.57
1844	108,826	59,799	0.55
1845	113,070	56,311	0.50
1821–25	194,241	126,269	0.65
1826–30	286,549	193,379	0.67
1831–35	348,435	214,720	0.62
1836–40	429,655	260,262	0.61
1841–45	524,471	297,881	0 57

See Census of Boston, 1845, p. 112.

TABLE IV.—NUMBER OF PAUPERS IN THE CITY OF BOSTON, MASS. 1837–1845

Years Ending Nov. 1st.	Population of City.	Number of Paupers.			Ratio of Paupers to 1,000 of Population.		
		Outdoor.	Indoor.	Total.	Outdoor.	Indoor.	Total.
1837	82,232	1,836	1,443	3,279	22.3	17.6	39.9
1838	85,756	2,236	1,424	3,660	26.1	16.6	42.7
1839	89,431	2,279	1,266	3,545	25.5	14.2	39.7
1840	93,383	1,983	1,422	3,405	21.2	15.2	36.4
1841	97,025	1,816	1,269	3,085	18.7	13.1	31.8
1842	100,809	1,899	1,452	3,351	18.8	14.4	33.2
1843	104,741	2,284	1,436	3,720	21.8	13.7	35.5
1844	108,826	2,274	1,369	3,643	20.9	12.6	33.5
1845	113,070	2,109	1,484	3,593	18.7	13.1	31.8
1837–40	350,802	8,334	5,555	13,889	23.8	15.8	39.6
1841–45	524,471	10,382	7,010	17,392	19.8	13.4	33.2

See Census of Boston, 1845, p. 107.

TABLE V.—PAUPERS IN INSTITUTIONS—BOSTON, MASS.

Average Number of Paupers and Actual Cost.

1888–1905

Years.	Population of City.	Average Number of Paupers in Boston Institutions.	Ratio of Paupers to 1,000 of Population.	Actual Cost of Paupers in Boston Institutions.	Cost Per Capita of Population.
1888	424,299	964	2.2	$94,636	$0.22
1889	436,243	990	2.3	85,402	0.20
1890	448,477	909	2.0	64,360	0.14
1891	457,774	932	2.0	80,612	0.18
1892	467,264	970	2.1	82,433	0.18
1893	476,950	873	1.8	92,021	0.19
1894	486,837	963	2.0	91,460	0.19
1895	496,920	844	1.7	88,761	0.18
1896	509,104	854	1.7	105,516	0.21
1897	521,587	827	1.6	96,197	0.18
1898	534,376	813	1.5	107,965	0.20
1899	547,479	753	1.4	108,049	0.20
1900	560,892	710	1.3	124,150	0.22
1901	574,633	732	1.3	123,703	0.22
1902	588,711	783	1.3	124,194	0.21
1903	603,134	807	1.3	151,092	0.25
1904	617,910	930	1.5	157,310	0.25
1905	633,048	967	1.5	161,252	0.25
1888–93	2,711,007	5,638	2.1	499,464	0.18
1894–99	3,096,303	5,054	1.6	597,948	0.19
1900–05	3,578,328	4,929	1.4	841,701	0.24

*This column represents the net cost (expenditures less income). The actual cost of outdoor pauperism in Boston, included under "Pauper Expenses" up to and including 1896, was as follows.

Actual Cost of Outdoor Pauperism—Boston, Mass.

1888–1896

Years.	Population of City.	Actual Cost.	Cost Per Capita of Population.
1888	424,299	$148,617	$0.35
1889	436,243	150,100	0.34
1890	448,477	175,037	0.39
1891	457,774	147,118	0.32
1892	467,264	152,120	0.33
1893	476,950	170,599	0.36
1894	486,837	175,419	0.36
1895	496,920	183,988	0.37
1896	509,104	206,488	0.41

See Annual Reports of the Commissioners of Public Institutions of the City of Boston. First to Sixth Reports, for statistics from 1888 to 1894, First and Second Reports of the Institutions Commissioner for Statistics of 1895 and 1896; and Annual Reports of the Pauper Institutions Trustees for statistics of subsequent years.

TABLE VI.—PAUPER POPULATION OF THE TOWN OF HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT.,

1881–1890

Years.	Total Population of the Town.	Number of Paupers.			Ratio of Paupers to 1,000 of Population.		
		Indoor.	Outdoor.	Total.	Indoor.	Outdoor.	Total.
1881.....	43,619	682	1,492	2,174	15.6	34.2	49.8
1882.....	44,687	725	1,597	2,322	16.2	35.7	52.0
1883.....	45,755	762	2,284	3,046	16.7	49.9	66.6
1884.....	46,823	771	2,521	3,292	16.5	53.8	70.3
1885.....	47,891	884	3,085	3,969	18.5	64.4	82.9
1886.....	48,959	832	3,034	3,866	17.0	62.0	79.0
1887.....	50,027	860	2,417	3,277	17.2	48.3	65.5
1888.....	51,095	852	2,454	3,306	16.7	48.0	64.7
1889.....	52,163	944	2,577	3,521	18.1	49.4	67.5
1890.....	53,230	1,063	2,260	3,323	20.0	42.5	62.4
1881–85....	228,775	3,824	10,979	14,803	16.7	48.0	64.7
1886–90....	255,474	4,551	12,742	17,293	17.8	49.9	67.7

Report of the Special Committee on Outdoor Alms of the Town of Hartford, 1891, Table IX.

TABLE VII.—COST OF POOR RELIEF IN THE TOWN OF HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT.

1874–1890

Years.	Population of Town.	Total Cost of All Relief.	Cost Per Capita of Population.
1874.....	39,667	$47,236	$1.19
1875.....	40,148	52,506	1.31
1876.....	40,629	61,390	1.51
1877.....	41,110	59,765	1.45
1878.....	41,591	69,914	1.68
1879.....	42,072	80,689	1.92
1880.....	42,551	70,775	1.66
1881.....	43,619	71,507	1.64
1882.....	44,687	84,689	1.90
1883.....	45,755	87,765	1.92
1884.....	46,823	96,096	2.05
1885.....	47,891	105,813	2.21
1886.....	48,959	114,578	2.34
1887.....	50,027	121,946	2.44
1888.....	51,095	130,802	2.56
1889.....	52,163	121,370	2.33
1890.....	53,230	120,692	2.27
1874–75.....	79,815	99,742	1.25
1876–80.....	207,953	342,533	1.65
1881–85.....	228,775	445,870	1.95
1886–90.....	255,474	609,388	2.39

Report of the Special Committee on Outdoor Alms of the Town of Hartford, 1891; Table IX.

TABLE VIII.—PAUPERS IN COUNTY POORHOUSES AND CITY ALMSHOUSES OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

1868–1894

Years.	Population of State.	Average Number Supported	Ratio to 1 000 of Population	Number Temporarily Relieved.	Ratio to 1,000 of Population.
1868	4,282,351	15,059	3.5	211,899	49.5
1869	4,332,553	14,585	3.4	149,886	34.6
1870	4,382,759	15,343	3.5	101,796	23.2
1871	4,452,771	14,838	3.3	96,192	21.6
1872	4,522,883	14,618	3.2	74,884	16.6
1873	4,592,995	15,331	3.3	81,640	17.8
1874	4,663,107	15,297	3.3	122,391	26.2
1875	4,733,219	15,234	3.2	129,211	27.3
1876	4,803,331	15,813	3.3	145,753	30.3
1877	4,873,443	16,044	3.3	181,681	37.3
1878	4,943,555	16,801	3,4	159,221	32.2
1879	5,013,667	15,870	3.2	79,852	15.9
1880	5,082,871	16,346	3.2	77,592	15.3
1881	5,174,369	16,148	3.1	77,148	14.9
1882	5,265,867	16,507	3.1	69,419	13.2
1883	5,357,365	17,316	3.2	60,554	11.3
1884	5,448,863	18,270	3.4	54,216	10.0
1885	5,540,361	18,804	3.4	55,590	10.0
1886	5,631,859	19,026	3.4	49,144	8.7
1887	5,723,357	19,090	3.3	46,045	8.0
1888	5,814,855	19,615	3.4	48,950	8.4
1889	5,906,353	20,749	3.5	59,761	10.1
1890	5,997,853	20,700	3.5	97,018	16.2
1891	6,124,957	20,756	3.4	131,538	21.5
1892	6,252,061	20,918	3.3	131,439	21.0
1893	6,379,165	20,883	3.3	120,867	18.9
1894	6,506,269	22,388	3.4	100,925	15.5
1868–1874	31,229,419	105,071	3.4	838,688	26.9
1875–1884	50,696,550	164,349	3.2	1,034,647	20.4
1885–1894	59,877,090	202,929	3.4	841,277	14.1

Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the State Board of Charities of the State of New York, 1894, pp. 499–502.

TABLE VIIIa—EXPENDITURES FOR PAUPER SUPPORT AND RELIEF IN COUNTY POORHOUSES AND CITY ALMSHOUSES OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

1868–1894

Years.	Population of State.	Expenditures for Support.		Expenditures for Temporary Relief.	
		Amount.	Per Capita of Population.	Amount.	Per Capita of Population.
1868	4,282,351	$1,627,072	$0.38	$681,027	$0.16
1869	4,332,553	1,613,865	0.37	981,962	0.23
1870	4,382,759	1,681,470	0.38	911,855	0.21
1871	4,452,771	1,674,293	0.38	820,353	0.18
1872	4,522,883	1,620,069	0.36	728,210	0.16
1873	4,592,995	1,730,156	0.38	715,751	0.16
1874	4,663,107	1,626,003	0.35	886,278	0.19
1875	4,733,219	1,742,475	0.37	877,112	0.19
1876	4,803,331	1,641,463	0.34	938,046	0.20
1877	4,873,443	1,688,846	0.35	1,072,910	0.22
1878	4,943,555	1,549,337	0.31	776,266	0.16
1879	5,013,667	1,618,868	0.32	692,466	0.14
1880	5,082,871	1,613,582	0.32	695,508	0.14
1881	5,174,369	1,680,455	0.32	660,351	0.13
1882	5,265,867	1,749,425	0.33	559,174	0.11
1883	5,357,365	1,959,837	0.37	579,987	0.11
1884	5,448,863	1,927,316	0.35	571,191	0.10
1885	5,540,361	1,982,555	0.36	592,496	0.11
1886	5,631,859	2,009,346	0.36	627,267	0.11
1887	5,723,357	2,010,125	0.35	593,035	0.10
1888	5,814,855	2,521,407	0.43	576,516	0.10
1889	5,906,353	2,995,562	0.51	671,671	0.11
1890	5,997,853	2,748,226	0.46	571,639	0.10
1891	6,124,957	2,825,488	0.46	654,655	0.11
1892	6,252,061	2,809,438	0.45	681,935	0.11
1893	6,379,165	3,010,604	0.47	631,306	0.10
1894	6,506,269	3,136,305	0.48	736,680	0.11
1868–1874	31,229,419	11,572,928	0.37	5,725,436	0.18
1875–1884	50,696,550	17,171,604	0.34	7,423,011	0.15
1885–1894	59,877,090	26,049,056	0.44	6,337,200	0.11

Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the State Board of Charities of the State of New York, 1894, pp. 503–506.

TABLE IX.—RELIEF FURNISHED BY THE TOWNSHIP OVERSEERS OF THE POOR—STATE OF INDIANA.

1896–1904

Years.	White.			Colored.		
	Total White Population.	No. Furnished Relief.	Ratio per 1,000 of Population.	Total Colored Population.	No. Furnished Relief.	Ratio per 1,000 of Population.
1896	2,333,794	67,945	29.1	52,589	3,469	66.0
1897	2,364,971	76,838	32.5	53,818	5,397	100.3
1898	2,396,148	70,442	29.4	55,047	4,677	85.0
1899	2,427,325	59,754	24.6	56,276	4,714	83.8
1900	2,458,502	43,131	17.5	57,505	3,238	56.3
1901	2,489,679	48,637	19.5	58,734	3,164	53.9
1902	2,520,856	45,680	18.1	59,963	3,169	52.9
1903	2,552,033	37,381	14.6	61,192	2,631	43.0
1904	2,583,210	43,123	16.7	62,421	2,886	46.2
1896–1904	22,126,518	492,931	22.3	517,545	33,345	64.4

Years.	Males.			Females.		
	Total Male Population.	No. Furnished Relief.	Ratio per 1,000 of Population.	Total Female Population.	No. Furnished Relief.	Ratio per 1,000 of Population.
1896	1,218,580	34,815	28.6	1,168,258	36,599	31.3
1897	1,235,286	40,237	32.6	1,183,958	41,998	35.5
1898	1,251,992	36,509	29.2	1,199,658	38,610	32.2
1899	1,268,698	30,919	24.4	1,215,358	33,549	27.6
1900	1,285,404	22,075	17.2	1,231,058	24,294	19.7
1901	1,302,110	25,202	19.4	1,246,758	27,599	22.1
1902	1,318,816	23,238	17.6	1,262,458	25,611	20.3
1903	1,335,522	18,917	14.2	1,278,158	21,095	16.5
1904	1,352,228	21,966	16.2	1,293,858	24,043	18.6
1896–1904	11,568,636	253,878	21.9	11,079,522	273,398	24.7

TABLE IXa.—RELIEF FURNISHED BY THE TOWNSHIP OVERSEERS OF THE POOR—STATE OF INDIANA

1896–1904

Causes of Relief.	Principal Causes of Relief—			
	1896–1899.		1900–1904.	
	Number.	Per Cent of Total.	Number.	Per Cent Total.
Lack of employment	9,218	3.1	2,983	1.3
Sickness and burial	38,971	13.3	46,713	20.0
Old age	8,432	2.9	8,907	3.8
Widowhood and non-support	6,678	2.3	7,469	3.2
Insanity or idiocy	1,327	0.5	1,259	0.5
Blind, deaf or crippled	5,978	2.0	5,732	2.5
Number given transport	8,730	3.0	11,183	4.8
Total for principal causes	79,334	27.1	84,246	35.1
Grand Total (all causes)	293,236	100.0	234,040	100.0

COST OF RELIEF.

Years.	Population of State.	Cost of Relief by Township Overseers of the Poor.	
		Amount.	Cost Per Capita of Population.
1896	2,386,838	$355,255	$0.15
1897	2,419,244	388,344	0.16
1898	2,451,650	375,207	0.15
1899	2,484,056	320,668	0.13
1900	2,516,462	209,956	0.08
1901	2,548,868	236,724	0.09
1902	2,581,274	266,877	0.10
1903	2,613,680	245,746	0.09
1904	2,646,086	281,900	0.11
1896–04	22,648,158	2,680,677	0.12

TABLE X.—RELIEF AND SUPPORT OF THE POOR IN CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Years	Population of the City.	Number Supported and Relieved.	Ratio Per 1,000 of Population.	Total Cost.	Cost Per Capita of Population.
1886	279,476	6,642	23.8	$67,628	$0.24
1887	283,752	6,449	22.7	106,736	0.38
1888	288,093	5,051	17.5	139,523	0.48
1889	292,501	6,683	22.8	88,320	0.30
1890	296,908	7,264	24.5	89,546	0.30
1891	299,684	7,866	26.2	88,380	0.29
1892	302,486	9,052	29.9	89,999	0.30
1893	305,314	6,514	21.3	83,250	0.27
1894	308,069	5,353	17.4	100,867	0.33
1895	310,949	4,440	14.3	94,479	0.30
1896	313,856	5,391	17.2	93,543	0.30
1897	316,791	5,810	18.3	108,699	0.34
1898	319,752	6,203	19.4	No report	.....
1899	322,742	6,764	21.0	95,267	0.30
1600	325,902	6,923	21.2	86,783	0.27
1091	328,949	6,759	20.5	92,731	0.28
1602	332,024	8,774	26.4	93,384	0.28
1903	335,128	8,474	25.3	91,801	0.27
1904	338,261	6,309	18.4	92,103	0.27
1886–94	2,656,283	60,874	22.9	854,249	0.32
1895–04	3,244,354	65,847	20.3	848,790	0.26

Annual Reports of the Infirmary Department, Cincinnati, Ohio.

TABLE XI.—COST OF PAUPERISM IN CHARLESTON, S. C.

1819–1848

Years.	Total Population of City.	Cost of Pauper Support and Relief.	Cost Per Capita of Population.
1819–23	128,454	$100,707	$0.78
1824–28	143,220	72,280	0.50
1829–33	150,420	46,418	0.31
1834–38	148,365	50,949	0.34
1839–43	144,302	50,489	0.35
1844–48	135,772	38,789	0.28

Census of the City of Charleston, S. C., for the year 1848, p. 51.

TABLE XII.—PAUPERISM IN CHARLESTON, S. C.

1830–1848

Years.	Total Population of City.	Transient Poor.		Permanent Poor.	
		Number.	Ratio per 1,000 of Population.	Number.	Ratio per 1,000 of Population.
1830	30,189	347	11.5	347	11.5
1831	30,187	291	9.6	294	9.7
1832	30,085	295	9.8	330	11.0
1833	29,982	284	9.5	317	10.6
1834	29,879	284	9.5	235	7.9
1835	29,776	301	10.1	268	9.0
1836	29,673	314	10.6	246	8.3
1837	29,570	296	10.0	206	7.0
1838	29,467	329	11.2	150	5.1
1839	29,364	535	18.2	190	6.5
1840	29,261	443	15.1	182	6.2
1841	28,910	378	13.1	210	7.3
1842	28,559	281	9.8	202	7.1
1843	28,208	303	10.7	230	8.2
1844	27,857	366	13.1	200	7.2
1845	27,506	280	10.2	175	6.4
1846	27,155	304	11.2	189	7.0
1847	26,803	294	11.0	213	7.9
1848	26,451	347	13.1	216	8.2
1830–33	120,543	1,217	10.1	1,288	10.7
1834–38	148,365	1,524	10.3	1,105	7.4
1839–43	144,302	1,940	13.4	1,014	7.0
1844–48	135,772	1,591	11.7	993	7.3

Census of the City of Charleston, S. C., for the year 1848, p. 48.

STATISTICAL INFORMATION CONCERNING THE PHYSICAL WELFARE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

BY LINSLY R. WILLIAMS, A. M., M. D., CHIEF OF CLINIC, DEPARTMENT OF MEDICINE, VANDERBILT CLINIC, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK.

In considering the physical welfare of school children three important facts must ever be held in mind. First, the condition of the child when it becomes of school age; second, the environment, particularly the influence of school life; third, the home surroundings. In giving any statistics on the subject of the physical condition of school children, these three factors can not be entirely separated and classified into groups, but each one merges into the other. When the child has arrived at school age, which is, as a rule, five years, its education is compulsory; and, in every state and territory in this country, depending upon the excellence of the existing state law, if the child is not presented by its parents for instruction, the parents must present some good excuse for its non-appearance; and social reasons are not acceptable. There are numerous chronic ailments of childhood which absolutely prevent or militate against its receiving any instruction. The more important of these are serious congenital mental defects, and defects of the heart, or organs of speech; and many of these defects can not be eradicated by any yet known medical measures. There exist, however, many minor defects easily eradicable, provided the parents are informed that such defects exist. If the child be incapacitated mentally or physically so that it is well evident to the parent, its physical condition is of course discovered by the family physician, or the dispensary or hospital physician. The existence of the minor defects, such as squint, near sightedness, adenoids, enlarged tonsils, bad teeth, nervous twitchings, and so on, are often not discovered by the parents nor is their seriousness realized until the child has for some time been under the influence of school life.

For many decades boards of health have existed in practically all of our larger cities. But not until 1896 was there any systematic school inspection in the city of New York. This medical inspection of school children consisted of one hundred and fifty inspectors, who inspected all the children in all the schools for the purpose of excluding cases of contagious and infectious disease. With the outbreak of a large epidemic of trachoma the board of health employed school nurses for the purpose of treating these cases and at

this time the system of inspection was enlarged and reorganized. In March, 1905, these medical inspectors became medical examiners, and a systematic examination of school children was undertaken in the Borough of Manhattan. Up to January, 1907, 134,000 children had been examined. These examinations consist in examinations for hearing, vision, examination of the nose and the mouth, for the presence or absence of deformities, and the examination of the heart and lungs as much as can be made by loosening the clothing at the neck. No measurements or weights are taken. The findings show an enormous proportion of minor defects and also a considerable proportion of more serious ones. The children have not been classified according to their age except the examination of 36,190 first-year pupils, which was made during the autumn of 1906, and in comparing the percentage of the defects with that of all the children it will be observed that increase of defects is noticed in the vision, hearing, cardiac disease, deformities, mentality and chorea in all the children. The following table explains this more fully:

TABLE I.

CHILDREN EXAMINED, MARCH, 1905, THROUGH DECEMBER, 1906, BY DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH NEW YORK CITY.

Items Compared.	March, '05, to June, '06. Unclassified Children.		Sept. to Dec. 30, '06. First Year Pupils.		Dec., '06. Over-age Child.	
	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.
No. examined	97,543	.....	36,190	.....	169	.....
No. needing treatment	64,735	66	25,075	69	142	84
Malnutr	6,111	6	1,093	6	12	7
Enl. gls	37,638	38	17,464	48	57	33
Def. vis	30,789	31	*3,533	21	66	39
Def. breath	11,805	12	5,691	16	38	22
Def. hear	1,936	2	229	.6	3	1
Teeth	38,991	40	18,788	62	91	53
Hyper. tons	17,835	18	8,716	24	61	36
P. Nas. growths	9,700	10	4,857	13	25	14
Card. dis	1,635	2	356	1	5	2
Pulm. dis	1,027	1	318	.9	6	3
Skin dis	1,947	2	6,000	1.6	None.	None.
Def. spine	804	.08	105	.3	3	1
Def. chest	555	.5	107	.3	5	2
Def. extrem	859	.8	189	.5	None.	None.
Deform. palat	1,206	1	323	.9	1	.5
Mentality, bad	2,427	2	640	1	8	4
Chorea	1,772	2.	346	.9	4	2

*Only 16,737 children examined for vision.

The percentage of children needing treatment is remarkably high, but need not unnecessarily alarm the people of a large city

and make them feel that two-thirds of the children are lame, sick, halt and blind, and that these two-thirds are candidates for institutions for "dependents," "delinquents" and "defectives." If we eliminate enlarged glands, defective vision and breathing, bad teeth, hypertrophied tonsils and post nasal growths, and if it is supposed that the following conditions each existed in a different child, malnutrition, defective hearing, cardiac disease, pulmonary disease, deformities of the spine, chest and extremities, bad mentality and chorea, this reduces our percentage of defects to nineteen per cent. In the first group it is fair to assume that the defects, although of vital importance to the physical and mental development of the child, are yet not serious defects, and in the majority of instances can readily be removed. But the importance of the examination, as already pointed out, is that without the examination these defects would not be discovered until they had seriously interfered with the physical welfare of the child. Of more importance than either of these examinations has been the examination of one hundred and sixty over-age children, and of these children the percentage of defects was eighty-four.* It should be noted here that there is a marked increase in the proportion of defective vision, breathing, bad teeth, hypertrophied tonsils, post nasal growths and pulmonary diseases.

In the last report of the city superintendent of schools, out of 19,353 elementary graduates, forty per cent. were over-age. According to the gradations of 519,797 children, 67,170, twelve per cent., were over-age children. This is found by taking the limit of age in the first grade as nine years, in the second grade as ten years, and so forth. It is fair to assume that this large number of over-age children is probably far within the actual number, with a considerably larger proportion of physical defects than in the children in normal classes for their age.

It has also been discovered that in the special schools for backward children the proportion of defects runs up to over ninety per cent., and it was also found that among the truants there existed a still larger proportion of physical defects. The number of children so examined has not been very large, but of over a hundred truants examined, over ninety-five per cent. revealed physical defects that interfered with the progress of the child. On June 1, 1906, in School No. 110, a special school for backward children, eighty-one children were operated on for hypertrophied tonsils and

*See Table I.

adenoids. After the operation there was a small riot in the neighborhood, caused by the mothers, due to the fact that the children were operated on in a place not suitable for the purpose, and the operation, though short and comparatively painless, is necessarily a bloody one. Through the agency of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, all of these children were sent away to the country for periods of two or more weeks.

A report of seventy-seven of these backward children obtained by the department of health reveals the following significant facts:

TABLE II.

SEA BREEZE EXAMINATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.
Summer of 1906. Girls, ages 5–15. Boys, 5–15.

	Boys.		Girls.		Grand Totals.		Total Pct.	Board of Health.
	No. Exam.	No. Defect.	No. Exam.	No. Defect.	No. Exam.	No. Defect.	De-fective.	Per cent.
Teeth	555	412	788	562	1,343	974	72	40
Hypertrophied tonsils	550	85	796	101	1,346	186	13	18
Enlarged gland, neck	555	.....	801	.....	1,356	.....	.....	.....
Anterior	.....	400	.....	436	.....	836	61	30
Posterior	.....	299	.....	324	.....	623	46	8
Chorea, St. Vitus dance	517	4	760	8	1,277	12	9–10	1
Cardiac disease	519	30	765	79	1,284	109	8	1
Pulmonary disease	521	13	763	20	1,284	33	2	1
Skin disease	513	6	755	9	1,268	15	1	1
Deformities	276	73	797	92	1,973	165	15	2
Def. vision	417	38	709	80	1,120	118	10	31
Def. nasal breathing	540	36	780	34	1,320	70	5	12
Adenoids	531	54	785	35	1,316	89	6	10
Def. hearing	445	19	699	33	1,144	52	4	1
Def. mentality	329	54	525	48	854	102	11	2
Poor nutrition	372	125	682	246	1,954	371	35	6
Def. palate	544	20	790	20	1,334	40	2	1

All but four of the seventy-seven have improved physically and have been promoted.

All but four have done more in school in the past six months than in the previous two years.

One child did three years' work during the past year—that is, a child of eleven, backward, was promoted rapidly and performed all the work that is expected of a child of six, seven and eight years of age.

TABLE III.

MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AT SEA BREEZE.
Summers 1905 and 1906. Girls, 5–15.

Age.	Height.			Chest circumference.			Weight.		
	No. Exam.	Aver.	(1) Stand.	No. Exam.	Aver.	(1) Stand.	No. Exam.	Aver.	(2) Stand.
5.....	81	42.1	41.4	97	20.7	21.	58	37.3	37.
6.....	130	43.4	43.6	147	21.3	22.8	98	37.8	38.8
7.....	124	44.3	45.9	141	21.7	23.5	97	43.24	42.4
8.....	147	47.1	48.	162	21.24	23.8	121	45.5	46.8
9.....	133	47.9	49.6	152	22.83	24.5	119	51.2	51.9
10.....	146	50.1	51.8	159	23.5	24.7	123	57.11	55.12
11.....	123	53.08	53.8	131	24.4	25.8	91	62.3	61.4
12.....	130	55.3	57.1	142	25.24	26.8	99	70.5	68.8
13.....	72	57.1	58.7	83	26.2	28.	57	75.9	78.9
14.....	45	57.4	60.3	49	27.5	29.2	33	86.7	89.5
15.....	13	60.4	61.4	15	26.9	30.3	10	88.8	97.9

TABLE IV.

Boys, 5–11.

Age.	Height.			Chest circumference.			Weight.		
	No. Exam.	Aver.	(1) Stand.	No. Exam.	Aver.	(1) Stand.	No. Exam.	Aver.	(2) Stand.
5.....	74	41.2	41.7	89	20.9	21.4	81	35.4	38.6
6.....	119	41.3	44.1	137	36.1	23.2	137	40.5	40.6
7.....	157	43.2	46.2	171	21.9	23.7	161	39.4	44.3
8.....	135	46.5	48.2	144	23.2	24.4	140	45.5	49.1
9.....	123	49.7	50.1	138	20.8	25.1	134	53.6	53.14
10.....	96	51.2	52.2	107	24.34	25.8	109	57.7	57.
11.....	101	52.9	54.	115	25.05	26.4	110	63.05	63.1

(1) Bowditch's Standard.
(2) Porter's Standard.
Note.—Sea Breeze weights without clothing.
Porter's Standard with clothing, reduced according to Bowditch, allowing $2\frac{5}{8}$ pounds at 5 years, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ at 7 years, etc.

It may very readily be assumed that this rapid promotion was due almost entirely to the improvement in their physical condition which resulted from the removal of their hypertrophied tonsils and post nasal growths, which had so seriouly interfered with their breathing and consequently with their physical and mental development.

It has been the good fortune of the writer to have had the opportunity to examine two thousand children who were sent to Sea Breeze at Coney Island, a Fresh Air Home, conducted by the New

York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. It has been a source of great satisfaction to find that the findings of one separate observer, when compared with the findings of a large number of observers in the department of health, show substantially the same results.* In comparing the table compiled by the writer and that compiled by the department of health it is noted that the children at Sea Breeze showed a larger number of serious physical defects than those children examined by the department of health, which was due, no doubt, to two reasons; first, that the children at Sea Breeze were children selected because their families were needy on account of sickness and other privations, and second, because the writer was able to give a more thorough physical examination. This accounts for the increased percentage of cardiac and pulmonary diseases, defective mentality and poor nutrition and chorea. The large increase in the percentage of defective teeth is possibly due to the writer's having been coached by Herbert L. Wheeler, D. D. S., an interested member of the committee on physical welfare of school children. The increased proportion of enlarged glands is, no doubt, a personal equation that the writer called some glands which were barely palpable, enlarged. The increased proportion of deformities is due to the fact that a large number of children with tuberculosis of the bones were sent to Sea Breeze to get what little improvement they could in a short stay of two weeks.

An interesting addition to the examination was obtained by measuring height and chest circumference of a large number of these children and in weighing them. It will be noted by referring to Tables III and IV that for almost every age all the measurements and weights were below the standards obtained by Bowditch and Porter in the measurements and weights of school children in Boston and St. Louis.

Two years ago it was stated by philanthropists and by the public press that anywhere from one hundred thousand to three hundred thousand school children went breakfastless to school. And, as result of these statements, the Salvation Army undertook to give free breakfasts to school children, which very promptly resulted in a failure, due, no doubt, to two special reasons: first, transportation was a vital difficulty, and, second, that there were comparatively few children who really went breakfastless to school. The New York Committee on Physical Welfare of School Children

*See Table II.

investigated four thousand families and have been able to tabulate the results of the investigations as to the home conditions of fifteen hundred children. Table V shows that only $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent. of the children went breakfastless to school. A remarkable fact was disclosed as a result of these investigations, namely, that the income in the large majority of instances was sufficient to meet the daily needs according to the standards adopted by the United Hebrew Charities, the Charity Organization Society, and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. It was also significant to note that nearly twenty-five per cent. of the mothers were working.

TABLE V.

TABULATED DETAILS AS TO HOME CONDITIONS OF 1,500 CHILDREN HAVING PHYSICAL DEFECT

CHILDREN EXAMINED—	
Boys	838
Girls	662
21 per cent Lower East side, S. 14th St. E. Broadway.	
18 per cent Lower West side, S. 14th St. W. Broadway.	
8 per cent 14th St. to 59th St., E. of Second Avenue.	
8 per cent 14th St. to 59th St., Second Avenue to Eighth Avenue.	
11 per cent 14th St. to 59th St., W. of Eighth Avenue.	
15 per cent above 59th Street, East.	
19 per cent above 59th Street, West.	
Other living children concerned	4,685
Total individuals concerned	8,978
Number of men	1,382
Number of widows	78
BREAKFAST—	Per cent.
Nothing	1.1
Bread and water	.6
Tea or coffee only	2.7
Tea or coffee with bread or cake	52.
Using tea or coffee	75.5
No tea or coffee	24.5
Milk with bread or cereal	12.2
Cereal, meat or eggs	33.1
FOR ENTIRE DAY—	
Tea or coffee once	42.8
Tea or coffee twice	27.4
Tea or coffee three times	12.3
No tea or coffee	17.5
No eggs or meat	4.6
Not reported	10.5
SLEEP—Number of hours reported for 1,000.	
6, 7 and 8 hours	3.
9 hours	10.6
10 hours	35.6
11 hours	39.1
12 to 13 hours	11.6

	Per cent
Living Rooms—1,500 children.	
1 room	.1
2 rooms	7.7
3 rooms	29.1
4 rooms	32.4
5 rooms	14.6
6 rooms	8.8
7 rooms	3.2
8 rooms	1.5
9 rooms	.7
10 to 12 rooms	.5
Whole house	1.5
Without bath	84.
Dark Rooms—1,100 children.	
1 dark room	8.3
2 dark rooms	9.9
3 dark rooms	6.8
4 or 5 dark rooms	.7
Percentage of dark rooms to total rooms	13.5
Reported unsanitary	1.2
No. Children Per Family—Total 6,185 children.	
Families (1,459) having 1 child	6.
Families having 2 children	13.9
Families having 3 children	19.6
Families having 4 children	18.8
Families having 5 children	18.1
Families having 6 children	11.6
Families having over 6 children	12.3
Families having lost from 1 to 6 children	19.6
Proportion children dead to children living	20.
Income—Weekly, for 3,617.	
Under $10	19.7
$10 to $19	60.4
$20 to $29	13.9
$30 and over	6.
Rent—Monthly, 3,536.	
Less than $10	10.2
$10 to $19	66.2
$20 to $29	11.6
$30 to $39	2.5
$40 and over	3.1
Free (Janitors)	6.4

The conclusions to be drawn as a result of these important investigations are as follows:

That a very large proportion of children have defects in their make-up, most of which are not immediately serious and are very easily remediable. This has been shown by the remarkable investigations made by the department of health in New York city, under the able direction of Dr. John J. Cronin, chief inspector of schools. The experience of other physicians in the larger private schools, and the experience of physicians with a large practice among children, all show that these minor defects exist to almost the same extent among children of well-to-do parents.

The seriousness of a large number of these defects becomes manifest so soon as the child enters upon school life.

That if these defects be not removed the child becomes and continues dull, lethargic, lazy, stupid and backward, and at times recalcitrant, obstinate, unmanageable and immoral, and that in many instances where these last conditions have existed and have been alleviated, the child soon begins to assume a more normal aspect of physical and mental well-being.

That some more active means are necessary to put the burden of responsibility upon the parents and instruct them in the necessity of attending to the health of their child, no matter how apparently trivial the ailment or defect may be.

The completed investigations of the New York Committee on the Physical Welfare of School Children prove conclusively that in the large majority of instances, the income of the family is sufficient to provide for the health of the children.

TABLE VI.

INCOMES AND RENT BY NATIONALITIES.

	300 Jewish.		250 Italians.		150 Americans.		50 Germans.		350 Others.	
	Inc. Pct.	Rent. Pct.	Inc. Pct.	Rent. Pct.	Inc. Pct.	Rent. Pct.	Inc. Pct.	Rent. Pct.	Inc. Pct.	Rent. Pct.
Less than $10...	7.3	3.33	21.2	11.6	5.4	10.7	4.	8.	6.9	8.
$10 and less than $20.....	44.7	56.	52.8	71.6	43.	48.3	60.	54.	53.3	58.85
$20 and less than $30.....	27.3	19.66	18.4	11.6	40.9	20.1	18.	16.	28.1	13.71
$30 and over...	20.7	17.66	7.6	2.8	10.7	16.2	18.	8.	11.7	11.42
Inf. refused or not given.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.	.....	.7	.....	.3	.....
Rent free (Janitors).....	.....	3.33	.....	2.4	.....	4.7	.....	14.	.....	8.

Mother's Working—	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
First year of child's life.....	.3	None.	2.	6.	1.7
Mothers now working.....	10.5	18.1	25.5	30.	23.8
Widows and deserted.....	1.4—	2.9—	9.4—	4.	6.4+

MEDICAL AND DENTAL CARE GIVEN 1,000 CHILDREN.

	Per cent.
Family physician.....	63.4
Dispensary.....	27.9
Dentist...	23.5

Further investigations are being made by this committee and a large wealth of material upon this particular phase of the work and other phases of schools and school life, will soon be published and will add considerably to the useful knowledge already obtained, which will be of marked assistance to those interested in improving the physical welfare of school children.

Promotion of Health in Home, School and Factory.

A BROADER MOTIVE FOR SCHOOL HYGIENE.

BY W. H. ALLEN, GENERAL AGENT, NEW YORK ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING CONDITION OF THE POOR, SECRETARY COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL WELFARE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, CHAIRMAN.

In his "Children of the Nation" Sir John E. Gorst laments the gap between hygiene precept and hygiene practice. He paints the familiar picture of an association of educators and sanitarians meeting "in an elementary school room to discuss hygiene, in an atmosphere, which if existing in the room when used for its normal purpose, would have justified the withdrawal of the exchequer grant." It is to be hoped that the same may not be said of the Thirty-fourth National Conference of Charities and Correction when discussing the promotion of health in school, home and factory. Of the rooms, however, where nearly 20,000,000 children of the United States receive instruction in physiology and hygiene, there is reason to fear that 90 per cent. not only violate the a, b, c's of hygiene, but even fall below the standards that many state boards of health set up for the housing of cattle.

Compelled to stare at dazzling light, glazed paper or dizzying blackboard, or to strain with improper focus for a share of the meager rays of a gas jet needed in the daytime, children read from print so small as to ruin sight how light affects the optic nerve. What wonder that principals write, "You can count on me to ruin at least three hundred pairs of eyes a year." As the American sovereign we eulogize marches manfully to the front row to tell how to prevent tuberculosis he scuffs up dust enough to render thirty pairs of lungs receptive to the tubercle bacilli. The daily hygiene motto is written on the blackboard: "A boy should drink plenty of fresh water every day," when the water pail is never washed and perhaps, as was my boyhood experience in a Minnesota town, the only water accessible to the school child is a well famous among small boys for its lizards and yellow

snakes. The chemistry of air, pure and impure, is explained in an atmosphere more poisonous than that of the average city sweatshop, against which the national child labor crusade has already attained vast momentum. Boys and girls who can not breathe through the nose because of adenoids and enlarged tonsils are punished for not being able to describe the passage that leads from the nose to the windpipe and lungs. Of 200,000 children already examined in the public schools of New York City, two-thirds are found to have removable physical defects—some slight, some serious, some fatal—that handicap them in their studies and jeopardize their prospects of industrial efficiency. Careful investigation proves furthermore that homes with high standards of living, as well as honor rolls in the higher grades, furnish a goodly share of these defects.

Are two-thirds of the children of Minneapolis handicapped by removable physical defects? Do two-thirds of Minnesota's children suffer from ignorance or neglect of the simplest laws of hygiene on the part of themselves, their parents, teachers, family physicians, health officers? If, of the country's children in public and parochial schools, and if, of those out of school who are still earning a child's wage, two-thirds or even one-half have the removable physical defects which Dr. Knopf will tell us how to detect and to correct, then our army of school children needing attention would, if stationed in single file, reach westward from Minneapolis to San Francisco and eastward from Minneapolis to New York and along the coast to Atlanta. Should roll-call begin tonight at San Francisco and Atlanta, and should sixty boys and girls respond every minute during the school day, the answer *present* would reverberate for fifteen years.

Shining on this line five thousand miles long are state laws that single out hygiene as the only subject to be made compulsory through the entire school life of nine children out of ten. To hygiene alone is given right of way for so many minutes per week, so many pages per text-book, or so much of each chapter. To the neglect of no other study are penalties attached. Behind no other topic are there so many earnest women able upon the first criticism of the laws regulating hygiene instruction to marshal an army of indignant voters and publishers' agents. No other field of experience, not even politics, shows more significantly the American belief in legislation, legislation, LEGISLA-

TION as the cure for harmful conditions and for bad legislation. Yet in spite of compulsory instruction in physiology and hygiene for a generation, and in spite of the fact that 500,000 teachers are, under penalty of removal, enjoined by law to teach the care of the body, we Americans were led by health officers rather than by teachers, by European precedent rather than by our observation, to discover that our own children are suffering from the same physical defects, the same injurious school environment, the same inability to live what Dr. Gulick calls the efficient life, as those which have tripped European cities into free meals, free eyeglasses, free almost-everything-to-conceal-for-a-time-at-least the ravages due to neglect of home conditions and community conditions prejudicial to health. What is even more significant and more alarming is the fact that the per capita consumption of alcoholic beverages in the United States has increased one hundred per cent., and the per capita expenditure for tobacco has increased even more during the last twenty years when instruction in the evils of tobacco and alcohol has been compulsory.

Why this paradoxical relation of precept to practice? Why is this, the most hygiene-instructed country in the world, the elysium of the patent medicine and cocaine traffic? If we have only the expected divergence of achievement from ideal, then there is nothing for us to do but to congratulate ourselves and posterity upon the part played by compulsory legislation in committing all states and territories to hygiene instruction in all public schools. If, on the other hand, the needs of hygiene instruction are as easily met as are those of school children, then a great opportunity confronts the members of the National Conference and the numerous agencies here represented.

To derive from school instruction in hygiene the personal and community benefits made possible by compulsory legislation, it is important: 1, to broaden its purpose; 2, to improve its methods; 3, to watch its results, applying efficiency tests to both purpose and method. Questions of method belong to conferences of school men. For motive and execution, however, this body of educators who work for school children outside of school rooms can not shift responsibility entirely to that other body of educators who teach school children inside of school rooms.

The chief purpose of school hygiene has hitherto been not to

promote personal and community health, but to lessen the use of alcohol and tobacco. Arguments were required against whisky, beer, cigars and cigarettes. As the strongest arguments would probably make the most lasting impression upon the school child and the best profits for author and bookseller, writers vied with one another in the rhetoric and hyperbole of platform agitation. What effect would it have upon you if you were exhorted frequently during the next eight years to avoid tobacco because a mother once killed a child by washing its head in tobacco water? What is the effect on the mind of a boy or a girl who sees that the family doctor, the minister, the teacher, the judge, the governor, the president and the philanthropist use tobacco and alcoholic beverages, when taught that boys who use tobacco and alcoholic beverages will find closed in their faces the doors to "being strong, good health, skill in athletics, good scholarship, long life, best companions, many business positions, highest success?" It is probably true that "a boy once drank some whisky from a flask and died within a few hours." But that story is about as typical of boys and of whisky as that "a boy once drank whisky from a flask and did not die for ninety years afterwards," or that "George Washington drank whisky and became the father of his country."

How special pleading has dominated the teaching of school hygiene is illustrated by a recent book which, for the most part, successfully breaks away from the narrow point of view and the crude method hitherto prevailing. It presents the following facts as to New York City:

Saloons	10,821
Arrests	133,749
Expense of Police Department	$10,199,206
Police courts, jails, workhouses, reformatories	1,310,411
Hospitals, asylums and other charities	4,754,380

It is fair to the author to state that he does not declare in so many words that the shutting up of the saloons would erase all of the arrests, and all of the hospital, jail and charity bills. Instead of *wipe out* he says *shrivel up*. It is also fair for the National Conference of Charities and Correction to admit that if school children may properly be given the foregoing table as it stands, without qualification, then this Conference is by no means doing its duty towards the classes it is here to discuss. Either we are on the wrong track in believing that there are deep-

seated causes of pauperism, insanity, sickness, crime, alcoholism and nicotinism, apart from the saloon, or else even the milder form of distorting the truth used in the above table should be eliminated from school books. The author probably felt—indeed, many members of the Conference probably have felt, as I did six years ago when I took my total abstainer's protest to a celebrated scientist who had exposed certain misstatements regarding the effect of small quantities of alcohol—"Is not the untruth of these exaggerated statements less dangerous than the untruth of dispassionate scientific statement? So long as the child mind takes in only an impression, is it not better to write this impression indelibly?" He sadly, but indulgently, replied: "And in what other studies would you substitute exaggeration for truth?"

The reaction has already begun against exaggeration in hygiene text-books, against drawing lessons from accidental or exceptional cases of excessive use of alcohol, against classing moderate drinking and smoking with drunkenness as sins of equal magnitude, and against overlooking grave social and industrial evils that threaten children far earlier and far more frequently than tobacco and alcohol. Instead of adding an ell, text-book writers are now adding only an inch or two at a time to the truth. No longer do we favor highly colored charts that picture in purple, green and black the effect of stimulants and narcotics upon the heart and brain, the stomach, the liver, the knee and the ear drum, *assuming that all resultant evils are concentrated in one organ.* Menacing habits, such as overeating and indulgence in self-pity are beginning to receive attention. It is also true that physiology and anatomy are progressively made more interesting. Publishers are looking for the utmost originality compatible with the purpose of the present laws and with the only effective public sentiment that has hitherto been interested in the interpretation of those laws. Meanwhile, this subject, second to none in importance to the child, to his home, and to the nation, receives little study, and less courtesy, from the only person who can make it accomplish its purpose—the teacher, who is responsible for bringing truth and child together.

A score of improvements in the method of carrying out a small ideal will not take the place of enlarging that ideal. If existing laws stand in the way of broadening the purpose of school hygiene, let the laws be changed. If text-book publishers stand in

the way, let us induce or compel them to get out of the way. If fear of rum sellers, their money and the insidious political methods that they might employ to bring in undertruth if overtruth is once sacrificed, let us go to our communities and locate the rum seller's guns, draw their fire, tell the truth about their opposition, and educate the public to overcome it. If on the other hand, militant teetotalism stands in the way, then as one teetotaler I suggest that we prove, as we can, in our respective communities that there is a better way of inculcating habits of temperance and self-restraint than by telling untruths, over-truths, or half-truths about alcohol and tobacco. Let us prove, as we can, that a subject vital to every individual, to every industry and to every government is now prevented from fulfilling its mission not by its enemies, but by its friends. We can learn the character of hygiene instruction in our schools and the interest taken in it by teachers, principals and superintendents. We can learn how the schools practice hygiene at school, and how the children of our communities are affected by the hygiene instruction now given. Finally, we can compel a public discussion of the facts and action in accordance with facts. Without questioning anybody's avowed motive, we can learn how big that motive is and how adequate or inadequate is the method of executing it.

How hygiene instruction may and should be broadened is illustrated by the examination for work certificates in Rochester, by the thorough physical examination of school children in New York City, by child study in Chicago, by the department of school hygiene in Cleveland, by the Massachusetts local option bill providing for medical examination and by the American School Hygiene Association, recently organized.

When boys and girls go for work certificates to Dr. Goler, medical officer of health at Rochester, he requires not merely evidence of age and of schooling, but examines their eyes for defective vision and for disease, their teeth for cavities and unhealthy gums, and their nose and throat for adenoids and enlarged tonsils. If a boy has sixteen decayed teeth Dr. Goler explains to him that teeth are meant to be not only ornaments and conveniences, but money getters as well. The boy learns that decayed teeth breed disease, contaminate food, interfere with digestion, make him a disagreeable companion and a less efficient worker. If he will go and have them fixed he will enjoy life better and earn big

wages sooner. After the teeth are fixed the boy secures his work certificate. If the boy's mother protests in tears or in anger that "the boy did not vurk mit his teet," she learns what she never learned at school, that sound teeth help pay rent. If a girl applicant for working papers has adenoids, she is asked to look in the mirror and to notice how her lips fail to meet, how the lower jaw drops, how much better she looks with her jaws and lips together. She is told that other people breathe through the nose, that this is easy, and that perhaps the reason she dislikes school and does not feel as she used to about play is that she can not breathe through her nose as she used to. She is shown that her nose is stopped up by a spongy substance round and white and hard and as big as the end of her little finger, which obstruction can be removed in two minutes. She is shown adenoids and enlarged tonsils that have been removed from some other girl and is so impressed with the contrast between the before operation and after operation picture and by the story of the other girl's rapid increase in wages, that she and her mother both decide not to wait for the adenoids to disappear by absorption. After the operation they come back with proof that the trouble is gone and get the "papers." Similar instruction is given when defects of vision seriously interfere with a child's prospect of getting ahead in his work or when evidences of incipient tuberculosis make it criminal to put a child in a store or factory.

Is there any one here who does not believe that those children are better protected against alcoholism and tobacco because of these practical lessons in personal hygiene? Is there any one who does not see that boys and girls are most deeply impressed by a physiological fact when it is applied directly and clearly by way of their main interests in life?

Alcohol and tobacco really occupy but a very small share of the interest and attention of even those men and women by whom they are habitually used. Hygiene, on the other hand, is of constant, uninterrupted concern. Why, therefore, should it be planned to have alcohol and tobacco displace the broader subject of personal and public hygiene in the attention and interest of children throughout the school life? Beyond the text-book and school room a thousand influences are at work to teach the social evils, the waste of energy and the unhappiness that always accompany the excessive use—and frequently result from a moder-

ate use—of stimulants and narcotics. Of the many reasons for not drinking and smoking, physiology gives those that least interest and impress the child. The secondary effects rather than the immediate effects are those that determine a child's action. Most of the direct physiological effects are in the majority of instances less serious in themselves than the effects of overeating, of combining milk with acids, of eating irregularly, of neglecting constipation. Were it not for the social and industrial consequences of drunkenness and nicotinism, it is doubtful if the most lurid picture of fatty degeneration, alcoholic consumption, hardened liver, inactive stomach lining would outweigh the pleasing—and deceiving—sensations of alcoholic beverages and cigarettes.

The strong appeal to the child or man is the effect upon his mother, his associates, his employer, his wife and his children. The vast majority of us will avoid or stop using anything that makes us offensive to those with whom we are most intimately associated and to those upon whom our professional and industrial promotion depends. Children will profit from drill throughout their days in the science of avoiding offense and of giving happiness, but unless the categories *acts that give offense* and *acts that give happiness* are wide enough to include the main acts committed in the normal relations of son, companion, employer, husband, father and citizen, those who set out to avoid alcohol and tobacco find themselves ill equipped to carry the obligations of a temperate law-abiding citizen. Things do not happen as described in the text-book. Other things not mentioned hinder progress and happiness. The child at work resents the mis-education received at school and suspects that he has been following false gods. The enemies that cause him trouble come from unexpected sources. He finds it infinitely easier to eschew alcohol and tobacco than to avoid habits and living conditions that first prove his school teaching untrue, and later insidiously undermine his aversion to stimulants and narcotics. The reasons for avoiding stimulants in the interest of others are more numerous and more cogent than the reasons for avoiding stimulants and narcotics for one's own sake. The altruistic reasons for shunning stimulants and narcotics can not be implanted in the child unless he sees the evil of excess *per se* in anything and everything, and unless he becomes thoroughly grounded in the life relations and health relations to which he must adapt himself.

Unclean streets, unclean milk, congested tenements can do more harm than alcohol and tobacco, because they breed a physique that craves stimulants and drugs. Adenoids and defective vision will injure a larger proportion of the afflicted than will alcohol and tobacco, because they earlier and more certainly substitute discouragement for hope, handicap for equal chance. Failure to enforce health laws is a more serious menace to health and morals than drunkenness or tobacco cancer. Those who see the ultimate bearing of the hygiene taught and practiced in the schools upon the source of the problems of charities and correction will find opportunity to assist their home communities if they will seek answers to the following questions:

Are the Children

Interested in hygiene and physiology; are they convinced; do they know the relation of health to earning power; do they know the cost of inefficiency; are they taught the facts about common physical defects of eye, of ear, of throat and nose, of teeth, of lung capacity; do they know the fallacy of the patent medicine, quick cure drug, etc.?

Do Your Teachers

Obey the law regarding the frequency and character of lessons on hygiene; believe what they teach; practice what they preach; encourage children to stay indoors during recess; enjoy the work; slight it as much as possible; make it interesting to the pupil; ignore results obtained; criticise their text-books; help the Board of Health; work for parks and playgrounds and stricter enforcement of sanitary regulations; wear high heel shoes, tight corsets, rouge and peroxide hair?

Do the School Rooms

Violate the laws of hygiene; manufacture defective vision and other physical defects; is proper ventilation possible; are the rooms cleansed thoroughly and often?

Does the School Board

Make over old buildings; violate sanitary laws in new buildings; provide ample play space; permit children to be injured by home study or by curriculum and text-books injurious to health?

Do the Citizens

Know or care how hygiene is taught; realize that school conditions are often more harmful than factory conditions; practice as taxpayers and legislators what children are taught should be done regarding alcohol and tobacco?

If you are interested in bringing hygiene practice nearer the level of hygiene precept, you may find helpful the following references:

American School Hygiene Association, Dr. Luther H. Gulick, 59th St. and Park Ave.

Medical examination in Massachusetts, E. T. Hartman, 3 Joy St., Boston, Mass.

Results of examination in New York City, Commissioner of Health Darlington, 55th St. and 6th Ave., New York City.

Condition of homes of New York children examined, Committee on Physical Welfare of School Children, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

European methods, John Spargo, Yonkers, New York.

Public Education Association interest in school hygiene, Paul S. Atkins, 1429 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa., and Mrs. Thomas S. Scruggs, 112 Bellevue Ave., Memphis, Tenn.

Labor laws protecting children, National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York City.

Progress of efforts to promote child welfare, Charities and the Commons, 105 East 22d St., New York City.

THE DUTY OF SOCIETY TO THE CHILD AT SCHOOL.

BY S. A. KNOPF, M. D., NEW YORK.

The hygiene in our schools (public, private, parochial and kindergarten), if it comprises not only physical, but mental and moral hygiene as well, is one of the most important of all the subjects in which educators, sociologists, sanitarians, physicians, philanthropists and the government can engage. I consider the satisfactory solution of this problem, that is to say, the proper application of physical, mental and moral hygiene to the life of the school child, equivalent in importance to the solution of any of our social problems.

After the child has safely passed through the dangers by which it is threatened as an infant and the likelihood of contracting the various more or less fatal diseases peculiar to that age, on entering school life it is exposed anew, for a period of from seven to eight years, to the contraction of such contagious and communicable diseases as measles, chicken pox, scarlet fever, diptheria, tuberculosis and even spinal meningitis, if there happens to be an epidemic.

Besides the danger in which a school child stands of contracting the various diseases just mentioned, overwork, mental strain, eye strain and ear strain may cause the development of new physical

defects or an aggravation of nervous, ocular or oral affections which had heretofore been only latent or in an incipient stage.

If the child has a hereditary predisposition to disease because one or both of his parents have had tuberculosis or syphilis, been afflicted with a great nervous or mental disorder, or addicted to alcoholism, the strain of school life not infrequently suffices to bring out or develop the hereditary taint. For example, a child may never have had a manifestation of epilepsy until seven or eight years of age. Then suddenly after the first six months of school we have an epileptic manifestation, because at examination time a great strain is put on the mental and nervous system of the child. Then, again, tuberculosis of the bones or joints becomes manifested during the school age. Previous to that time the child could play around and be in the open air most of the time, and consequently no manifestations of tuberculosis were to be observed.

If the home conditions of the child are such that it receives either not enough food, or insufficiently nutritious food, does not get enough sleep or must sleep in an ill-ventilated room, is insufficiently clad and its bodily hygiene generally neglected, or if, as it happens, alas, too often, it must contribute by its "child labor" toward the support of the family, we have additional predisposing factors to all the acute and chronic, physical, mental and moral diseases which the human race is heir to.

How can we avoid some of these predisposing causes? To my mind no child should be permitted to go to school before it is seven, or better yet, eight years of age. And how about sleep? Do you know that it is absolutely essential for a child under fifteen years of age to get at least nine hours' sleep in summer and nine and one-half or ten hours in winter? How many do get that? As a remedy for existing conditions I would suggest: First, the necessity of giving the child more years of play. Secondly, the abolition of home study and home studies. Home studies, I believe, are the tyrant of the teacher, the tyrant of the young pupil and the tyrant of the parent. To my mind they should be abolished as a rule, except, perhaps, that during the vacation some lessons might be given so that the children do not forget it all. You might be interested to hear of a very serious case in New York where we had to appeal, not I, but another party, to the courts for a decision. A precedent was handed down by the grand jury of Kings county, New York, after their examination of several

members of the Board of Public Education and the principal of the school, containing a recommendation that home study by the high school pupils should entirely cease. The jury had reached the conclusion that the scholars were being forced far beyond their capacity to absorb and retain the knowledge. That is the only instance that ever came to my knowledge in which legal aid had to be invoked to limit the number of hours which pupils in public schools should devote to their study.

Now, then, how can we detect some of those defects which have been spoken of a little while ago? I think we should train our school teachers. I know they are trained enough, but I mean trained medically. I would not wish to make physicians of them, but I would wish that they should know enough of medicine to help the school physician's work, to recognize a child which is short sighted, a child which is anemic, a child which is in danger of becoming tuberculous or has some other affection, and then call the attention of the school physician to it, who will make a thorough examination. By this means I think medical examination of the pupils could be made very much more thorough.

Then I would urge having small enough classes to enable the teacher to come in close contact with the individual pupil, and having separate classes for mentally defective and physically abnormal children.

I would also endeavor to arrange the curriculum so that the physical development of the child should not suffer under the mental strain. I want to be very emphatic on this point, because I think herein lies the great secret of all our trouble. When we push the mental development of the child to the detriment of its physical being it is always bound to suffer when older. We have in New York truant schools, and you may have one here, too, for all I know. With us the majority of the pupils in the truant school are defective. Out of one hundred, eighty-seven were found defective and they had all sorts of trouble from bad teeth, adenoids, short-sightedness, skin disease and tuberculosis to even worse troubles, which I do not wish to mention here. So then we want to arrange the curriculum in all the schools so as to develop the mind and the physical body at the same time to their best advantages. And then, of course, we want to abolish child labor. The other day you heard a most beautiful and inspiring address by Dr. Devine on "Child Labor," and I was delighted with everything that

was said, but I missed one thing. He had forgotten that there is a child labor at home. There is not only child labor in the factory and in the shop and in the stores, but I have seen child labor in New York in my wanderings among the poor which was almost as bad as any of the child labor described in the literature on the subject. Little children, particularly girls of six, seven and eight years, had to take care of and carry in their arms the baby. These child martyrs are called "little mothers." It is not at all an unusual sight in our tenement districts to see a child of ten years of age carrying the little one, and doing work in the kitchen the greater part of the day, instead of going to school. Now, this child labor at home is just as bad as child labor in the factory and should not be permitted. I would furthermore suggest the teaching of rational hygiene, physical, mental and moral, including the teaching of the prevention of tuberculosis, venereal diseases and alcoholism to school children according to their age and understanding, by the regular teacher or special teacher, or the school physician. I am not going to take your time with giving you instructions how to show hygiene to children, but I want to give you a little example. I am particularly interested in the prevention of tuberculosis, and we should teach our children about the prevention of this disease. How can we do that? Well, not by great scientific discussion, but by plain talk, and instead of dealing with the causes, tell them right at once the things to do and what not to do. With your permission, I will read to you what I call the alphabet in the prevention of tuberculosis, which, whenever I have a chance I give to school teachers, with the request that they may spread the gospel and put the same in everyday use with their children. Every child or adult can help to fight consumption. School children can be helpful by complying with the following rules:

Do not spit except in a spittoon, or a piece of cloth, or a handkerchief used for that purpose alone. On your return home, have the cloth burned by your mother, or the handkerchief put in water until ready for the wash.

Never spit on a slate, floor, sidewalk or playground.

Do not put your fingers in your mouth.

Do not pick your nose or wipe it on your hand or sleeve.

Do not wet your fingers in your mouth when turning the leaves of books.

Do not put pencils in your mouth or wet them with your lips.

Do not put money in your mouth, or put pins in your mouth. I have seen big children do that.

Do not put anything in your mouth except food and drink.

Do not swap apple cores, candy, chewing gum, half-eaten food, whistles, bean blowers, or anything that is put in the mouth.

Peel or wash your fruit before eating it.

Never cough or sneeze in a person's face. Turn your face to one side, or hold a handkerchief before your mouth.

Keep your face and hands and finger nails clean; wash your hands with soap and water before each meal.

Do not kiss anyone on the mouth, nor allow anyone to do so unto you.

When you don't feel well, have cut yourself, or have been hurt by others, do not be afraid to report to the teacher.

Be just as careful and cleanly about your person at home as in school.

Clean your teeth with tooth brush and water, if possible after each meal, but at least on getting up in the morning and on going to bed at night.

Learn to love fresh air, learn to breathe deeply, and do it often.

That is the alphabet for the prevention of tuberculosis. Anyone of you teachers that wants to have one is welcome to it.

Now, I have to talk about breathing exercises and you school teachers will want to know what I mean by them. If the chairman will permit I will show them to you. The more simple these exercises are, the more willing the children will be to obey instructions and take them up. Now, whenever possible, the breathing exercises should begin at the earliest possible period in life. As soon as the intelligence of the growing child will permit, it should be taught to breathe deeply, and later on to take exercises. (Dr. Knopf then illustrated and described a system of simple breathing exercises suitable for school classes.)

Now that is an example of teaching hygiene practically in school. The higher branches of hygiene, such as pertain to the knowledge of what a young woman should know and a young man should know is preferably taught by the school physician of the respective sexes. At least I think that would be the better way. Then I would urge upon our school authorities to inaugurate a thorough course of instruction of our school girls, the future wives

and mothers of the nation in sanitary and practical housekeeping, including a course of plain, economic cooking and the art of serving a plain meal appetizingly. I feel very keenly on this subject. I have not touched alcoholism because I believe you hear just about enough temperance lectures, but I have my own ideas about how to prevent alcoholism. Teach the woman or future wife of the laborer how to make a home cheerful, to keep it clean and neat, how to cook a meal appetizingly, plain but well and good, to have the home so cheerful that when the laborer returns from his daily task he will long to get home and see that cheerful room and take that good, appetizing meal. The saloon will have less temptation for him then. We have in New York—I always refer to New York—I beg your pardon, but that is the only place I really know well—we have so-called model flats where we teach the ignorant housewife some methods of housekeeping. We teach the young girls who come to the settlement there how to keep a home neat and clean and how to handle the dust. Now with all due respect to the good old way of cleaning house—you know how some people do—they take a feather duster and manage to send the dust from one place to another, and so they are really not cleaning—only scattering the dust. And this is the most unsanitary thing they can possibly do, the most foolish thing to do. I prefer a room without a carpet. Small rugs I don't mind, but fixed carpets I don't like a bit. When they must be swept I would recommend to throw bits of moistened newspaper on the floor and sweep them up with the dust, little of which will then fly in the air. When you wipe the furniture use a moist cloth or put a few drops of crude oil and turpentine on the rag and the dust will stick to that. I should like to say clean our schoolrooms in the very same way, because what we would like to do at home we should do in the schools for our children. Now, I would further advise the building and equipment and cleaning of the schoolhouses so as to assure the best possible sanitary conditions for teachers and children—for both—and the making of large playgrounds or roof gardens and swimming tanks and baths as indispensable equipments in every school. Why do I advocate baths and swimming tanks? Baths I advocate simply because I am a physician, and I believe that cleanliness is next to godliness, and some of our little school children coming from the homes of the poor have not very much of that cleanliness and godliness. But why do I advocate swimming tanks? I have only ad-

vocated swimming tanks for about four or five years, and I will tell you why. It is my privilege to be the senior attending physician to a large institution—the New York City Riverside Sanitarium for Consumptives, which is located on North Brother Island, where a large excursion boat took fire and sank some four years ago. When my duty called me over there and I saw in the afternoon of that terrible day four hundred little bodies laid out as the consequence of that disaster, I said to myself that if I had an opportunity I would preach swimming lessons. I am convinced that if these children and young women would have known how to swim more than three-fourths of them could have been saved. North Brother Island was only a short distance from where the disaster took place. Ever since then I embrace every opportunity to plead with the school authorities and school teachers to lift up their voices in favor of swimming lessons. Do not let any boy or girl grow up without knowing how to swim. It is something which nobody forgets and everybody may need. Are not our children just as dear to us when they are young as when they are big college graduates? Every college in the United States of any account has its swimming tank for men or women, but our school children haven't it.

Besides the breathing exercises I told you about, I believe in recitations and singing outdoors when the weather permits it. You have no idea what a stimulus it is to the lungs for a child to sing in the open air, or to recite a little poem in the open air. Why can we not do it when the weather is good? Not too cold, not too windy, nor rainy. There are already some schools where children predisposed to tuberculosis are educated and they virtually receive all their instruction outdoors. We should give our children as much outdoor instruction as possible, and every school, to my mind, should have attached to it a school farm, and, if possible, a school garden, where children can be taught the love of nature and of agricultural and horticultural pursuits, which are so sadly neglected nowadays.

I would recommend that enough school physicians, especially trained for the purpose and sufficiently remunerated, should be attached to every public school to assure the exclusion of children afflicted with contagious or communicable diseases or other physical defects, with a view of curing or correcting a disease or infirmity, including bad teeth. This should be done through either private or public initiative.

I would advise against the employment of tuberculous teachers in

public schools, but if they have contracted tuberculosis in the performance of duty, it is the duty of the municipality to provide for them until their earning capacity is again established and restored. It was my privilege this morning to address the health officers of the city of Minneapolis, and among other things I received there was a circular, very well framed, which reads: "A circular relating to tuberculosis in the State of Minnesota, issued by the State Board of Health. Are you willing to aid in the control of consumption? If so, see that those suffering from the disease are not employed as teachers." This is another subject I am deeply interested in. As I have said, I approve of the weeding out of the tuberculous child and the tuberculous teacher from our public schools, and I go even farther and recommend an examination for tuberculosis of every child and teacher entering the public schools, and a periodical reexamination of both, but I also believe that it is our most sacred duty to provide for these tuberculous teachers and tuberculous children. Let us multiply our sanatoria for children and employ in them as many teachers as we can from the unfortunate ones who have contracted tuberculosis. Now what are we to do with the rest who can not find employment in these institutions? Naturally, there will be a great many who can not find employment there. One of our most beloved, large-hearted and generous philanthropists, a distinguished fellow-townsman of mine, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, recently created a fund to pension teachers in academic schools who were of a certain age, and who were no longer able to earn their livelihood. Mr. Carnegie very justly surmised that our college professors are, as a rule, too poorly paid to accumulate a sufficient amount to live in comfort during their declining years. It is a great and beautiful philanthropy, and I sincerely hope that the example of Mr. Carnegie will be emulated by other philanthropists, but I hope and pray that in future gifts of pensions to educators, our ordinary school teachers will not be forgotten.

As a rule they must have served at least twenty years before they are entitled to any pension, and then it is but small. They, too, have often very little chance to accumulate enough to enable them to live in comfort during old age, and I am certain that when misfortune strikes one in the prime of life, when the school teacher contracts tuberculosis and must leave school, nine times out of ten she will have very little or no money saved. Yet it costs money to provide for at least a year needed to cure a tuberculous patient,

and it requires even more to make him comfortable when he is forced to live in idleness for two or three years. Let the municipality which excludes the tuberculous teacher and the tuberculous child provide for them. Let our good and generous fellow-citizens who love to devote part of their wealth to relieve the suffering and misery of their fellow-men, remember in their benefactions the school teacher who has had the misfortune to contract consumption. Whether such a benefaction be in the shape of a special sanatorium for tuberculous teachers or a special fund, it is immaterial. The men and women who will direct their philanthropic efforts towards such a noble purpose will surely serve their fellow-men in the highest degree possible, for next to his mother and his parents to whom is man more indebted for what he is and what he knows than to his school teacher?

Coming to another subject, I would insist upon the appointment of a sufficient number of trained nurses, that is to say, school nurses, whose duties should be, first, to aid the school physician in his work; secondly, to visit the homes of the physically, morally or mentally defective children, in order to learn if home conditions alone are not responsible for the defects in the child. I am convinced that by such judicious co-operation of teacher, physician, nurse and parents, and if the case demands it, an organized charity society, many of the underlying causes of the child's trouble can be lastingly remedied. I believe the function of the school nurses is a most important one. You teachers know what pediculosis means. The pediculis capitis is a certain parasitic disease, called in plain English lice. Children of the poor have very often these pediculis capitis, and consequently they must remain from school. We can not afford to have these infected children associate with others, and give their parasites to the other pupils. Formerly they used to lose six or eight weeks out of the school term in that way. What do we do now? We send the school nurse to the home of the child, and there she teaches the mother how to clean the child's head thoroughly, and the next day the child comes back and attends school. That is one of the functions of the school nurse. If there is any trouble about the personal hygiene of the child and the doctor has not got time to go to the home of the pupil, and the teacher has not the time to go, we send the school nurse, and she usually finds out the cause. To my mind, that is one of the most important factors in the hygienic management of a school.

I believe that a spirit of compassion and chivalry could be awakened by teaching the children of the well-to-do to help their underfed, badly-clothed and badly-housed, and consequently, intellectually-handicapped, fellow pupils, the children of the poor; but if this is not sufficient, the community should come to the rescue and at least help to provide substantial lunches for those who can not afford to pay for them. Now there is any amount of difference of opinion regarding whether or not we ought to feed the young ones. Shall we let them starve, or shall we not let them starve? Shall the municipality pay for them, or not? Is this paternalism? Is this pauperizing? I believe all this could be avoided by a little judicious management, for example, by charging a small amount. But through the fear of paternalism or pauperizing, to let a child go to school without breakfast, or have it make a lunch of an apple or a cracker, and then expect the little one to do good mental work, is about as cruel a thing as I can imagine. The underfed child can not do school work. It can not think and it can not learn. They have tried the experiment of giving cheap but good lunches in some cities—in Boston, I believe—and I know in Portland, with unusual success. They give the underfed children a glass of milk and sometimes two glasses of milk, and a sandwich. The children gained usually in weight within two weeks from two to three pounds, and do a great deal better at school, and they are better behaved. Now I come to my conclusion. I believe in character building at school by teaching the value of service to others, the importance of good manners, the dignity of labor, the exemplification of the broadest humanitarian spirit and the love for all creatures, including the dumb animals.

The recent words of President Roosevelt, when he addressed the schoolmates of his son Archie on the subject of "The American Boy," in which he admonished the boys to be brave, strong, gentle and kind, should serve as an inspiration to the superintendents of schools, and be incorporated in the weekly curriculum as a lesson on true bravery, gentleness and kindness. I am convinced that the money, energy and labor, and let us say love, which will be expended in thus making of the school child a physically strong and mentally sound and morally pure young man or woman, will not only make the commonwealth the financial gainer in the end, but that such judicious expenditures for the preservation of the life and health of our school children will decrease our general morbidity

and mortality rates, lessen the need for the asylums for the blind and insane, and the need of prisons and reformatories, and that the future generation will be a finer type of American men and women.

DISCUSSION ON HEALTH IN SCHOOL.

DR. BRACKEN—It is rather a difficult proposition to follow Dr. Knopf in discussing the sanitary conditions in school buildings. I shall devote myself chiefly to the sanitary regulations existing in this State as pertaining to schools.

First, relating to the eyes and ears of school children: Dr. Allport, formerly a resident of Minneapolis, was one of the early advocates favoring the examination of the eyes and ears of all school children. About four years ago the American Medical Association passed resolutions requesting the various State Boards of Health to take action looking to the examination of the eyes and ears of all school children. Minnesota was one of the States that quickly fell into line and during the last three years teachers have been instructed as to the methods of making such examinations, and requested to examine and report their findings to the State Board of Health on blanks furnished for that purpose by said board. The teachers are furnished with warning cards, and when a child is found with apparent defect of sight or hearing it is given such a card to be taken to its parent or guardian, advising that the child be taken to a competent physician for a more thorough examination. The superintendent of public instruction, Mr. J. W. Olson, has taken quite an interest in this work.

Dr. Knopf referred to a circular of our State Board of Health relating to tuberculosis in schools. The point is made in this circular that the tuberculous teacher or pupil should not be in school: (1) because their recovery is not probable if they are kept under the strain of school life; (2) because the importance of fresh air, rest and good food should take first place in the treatment of the tuberculous, and those attending school do not get the necessary amount of any of these; (3) because close confinement in school may be followed by other forms of tuberculosis than consumption, and may cause permanent deformities or death; (4) because teachers and school children with consumption are a decided menace to their associates; (5) because by excluding the tuberculous from school we provide for their possible recovery and at the same time prevent the infection of others; in so doing many valuable lives may be saved to the State. It is not our wish to assume the place of alarmists in dealing with tuberculosis. There is too much of this already. But we make the point that the place for the tuberculous teacher and the tuberculous pupil is outside of the school room, because their attention should be given, in the first instance, to getting well. Of course, light instruction in the open air may be given to a group of tuberculous individuals as suggested by Dr. Knopf.

The proper construction of school buildings is an important problem. The last Minnesota legislature provided that the construction of public buildings (including school buildings) should be put under the supervision

of the State Board of Health, so far as relates to sanitary requirements. The superintendent of public instruction and the State inspectors of schools are aiding the State Board of Health greatly in enforcing this law.

The inspection of schools is still in its infancy in this State. An attempt was made a few years ago to carry on free inspection in Minneapolis, but this resulted in failure, for the work became too burdensome for the volunteer physician to carry out properly.

The Minnesota State Board of Health has formulated certain regulations relating to school inspection. We can hardly expect these to be carried out literally for the present at least, but they should have an educational effect on boards of education, as well as upon teachers and pupils.

You had the statistics for defective children in the schools of New York City shown you this evening. I wish that such statistics could be given for every city throughout the United States.

DR. KELLOGG—I desire to say a word in behalf of the work of the Committee of One Hundred, which was appointed by the American Association for the Advancement of Science at its last meeting, for the purpose of securing the establishment of a national bureau of health. This is a matter in which every citizen ought to be interested. I am sure what has been said by Dr. Knopf in reference to the dangers to which children are exposed while in school shows the importance of making a careful study of the question of environment as it relates to human health. In a paper read before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, by J. Pease Norton, Ph. D., assistant professor in political economy, Yale University, many startling facts were brought out. Dr. Norton showed that in the next twelve months 1,500,000 of the persons now living in the United States will die. This means that 4,200,000 persons are sick all the time, and that 5,000,000 homes with their 25,000,000 inmates will be made sad and wretched by this terrible loss of human life. Of the people now living eight millions will die of tuberculosis, six millions will die of diseases of the heart and kidneys, eight millions will die of pneumonia. The Department of Agriculture at Washington has, during the last ten years, expended on an average $4,600,000 in saving elm trees from the attacks of beetles, in combating potato bugs, in stamping out hog cholera and pleural-pneumonia in cattle; but through lack of a bureau of health practically nothing is being done by the national government for the suppression of the terrible plagues which are working such frightful havoc in our midst and steadily increasing in virulence and fatality. Great Britain has already taken active steps in this direction and has established a permanent advisory council which is substantially a national department of health. The American Medical Association has for years been working most earnestly in this direction. The live-saving service of the Treasury Department expends nearly two millions a year for protection against accidents at sea, but not a penny is expended to save the enormous loss which occurs from the death of nearly one-fifth of the total population every ten years. President Roosevelt is in sympathy with this movement and it is only necessary that the national government shall give proper attention to this subject to create a strong popular sentiment in favor of a thoroughly organized national bureau which shall set in

operation such measures of research, investigation and prophylaxis as shall effectively stay the march of the terrible scourges which are now carrying down so many millions to untimely death. It is safe to say that at least one-half of the present mortality might be prevented by the application of efficient preventive measures.

Prof. Norton has shown that a decrease of one-fourth of the present mortality, or an increase of the average life from the present rate of forty years to fifty years, would result in a saving of more than one and a half billions of dollars annually; in other words, an amount greater than the national debt through the saving of life alone. If the days of sickness were lessened only one-third another half billion dollars would be saved. At least another hundred millions would be saved by the lessening of crime which disease, as well as poverty, always promotes. The close relation of disease to improvidence and criminality makes this question one in which the National Conference of Charities and Correction should be specially interested. I am sure that every member of this association will do what he can to secure the establishment of a national bureau of health, and one of the most effective ways of accomplishing this is to interest your representatives in Congress in the subject, setting the matter before them by personal appeals and by correspondence.

This is a question in which every patriotic citizen must take an interest. Not only personal influence, but also money will be needed to carry on the necessary propaganda and to get proper bills prepared to present to Congress. When the new bureau is once organized and set in operation, the necessary appropriations will be made by the government and a work of most tremendous and far-reaching importance will be begun.

Mr. Pond—I want to ask Dr. Knopf how much can teachers and school boards do in small schools in little villages or country districts in the direction in which Dr. Knopf has pointed out towards hygiene in schools?

Dr. Knopf—They can do more than the school boards and the teachers in large cities, simply because they can get in closer contact with the parents of the children. The teachers know, perhaps, every one of the parents of the children, and the school boards perhaps know every one of the parents, so I believe that a beginning, and a very good beginning, can be made by cleaning up the old country schoolhouse, which is not cleaned very often, and then open the windows wide. Have the children taught that although they live in the country and have good country air, they should make use of it and not keep the good fresh air all for the people from the city when they come there to see a little of the country.

Mrs. Frank McVey, Minneapolis—I would like to ask two questions: One, is it advisable to teach children considerable before they go to school, granted eight years is the proper time to send them; and, second, after they do go to school after eight years, is it advisable for them to be in school five or five and a half hours a day?

Dr. Knopf—I answer the second question first. Absolutely not. To put a child at school at the age of eight years is all right, but to expect a

child at that age to sit still and not wiggle at all, for half an hour, or three-quarters of an hour, is inhuman. You can not ask a child at the age of eight years to concentrate its attention for any time longer than five minutes at a time. I defy anyone to be able to do it. And when the child grows a little older, ten or twelve, make it ten minutes or fifteen minutes, and never make it more than twenty-five, for even children under fifteen years of age, constant attention should not be longer expected than twenty or twenty-five minutes.

MISS GORDON—I should like to ask, Dr. Knopf, if you do not want the children to go to school until eight years of age; do you object to the kindergarten?

DR. KNOPF—That depends on the kindergarten. There are kindergartens and kindergartens. The child's mind should be influenced up to the age of seven, if at all possible, by the parent more than by the outsider, but there are conditions when it is necessary to send a child to the kindergarten. Now the kindergarten should be a model of hygiene. Children catch more diseases in kindergartens than in a public school. There is one disease which is very prevalent in kindergartens, and that is colds, and do you know that the most contagious of all diseases is a cold? Children that go to the kindergartens, if the curriculum is what it should be, all play, and mostly play out of doors, in good weather; otherwise, in a well-ventilated schoolroom, are benefited.

MISS GORDON—Mr. Knopf, I would like to ask another question. We know the danger of disease in the schoolroom. Would it not be advisable to borrow from the knowledge of our eastern brethren and let our children leave their shoes at the front door as they enter the school?

DR. KNOPF—They would not do it. We have to inaugurate such rules as the customs of the land will stand. We must always figure on the custom of the land.

MISS GORDON—Improve the custom of the land. Change it?

DR. KNOPF—Yes, we are trying hard, but we can not do it all at once. There is one way of doing it, if I may be permitted to come again to my tuberculous stories. Now, in the ideal sanatoria for consumptives we do not allow patients, after they have walked out in the street, to enter with the same shoes. They are expected to change shoes, or they have certain apparatus where they can clean their soles over a piece of canvas moistened, but that will be a very hard thing to teach the little young ones, so I believe the best thing to do is to have the room where the children play as well ventilated as possible. Have the floor scrubbed and teach the little ones to wipe off their shoes when they come in as much as possible, but I don't believe we can, without special training, have the shoes off. I am afraid the little ones might get many colds going barefooted. It is not the best thing in the school. I would not like to recommend it, anyhow.

Children.

CHILD LABOR AND THE CONSTITUTION.

BY HON. ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE, U. S. SENATOR FROM INDIANA.

If the American children now being exploited in the mills, mines, factories and sweatshops of the country had votes and were organized into a national union, there would be an end of child slavery in this republic. But they are not so organized. They can not help themselves. Therefore, the American people must help them. The conscience of the nation has declared war upon this infamy, and that warfare will not end until the last vestige of our national shame shall have been destroyed.

When in the Senate I introduced a bill to end child slavery in the republic, the existence of the evil was denied by some, while others said that it was exaggerated. But when I presented the testimony, taken under oath, of scores of men and women whose truthfulness no one could question, when these men and women gave thousands of detailed instances seen and investigated by themselves showing the widespread nature of the evil, denials ceased and we heard no more about exaggeration. Little girls seven years old are at work at six o'clock in the morning, and must stand on their feet tending flying machinery for twelve long hours, breathing the dust and lint-filled air. I ask every woman here tonight to suppose that girl was your girl. Tomorrow morning, on the breakers in the anthracite coal region, thousands of little boys from seven to fourteen years of age, will be at work before any of this audience are awake, picking stone from the rushing channels of coal. Behind them stands the boss with stick in hand, while the breaker, on the sunniest days, is so full of dust particles that the boys wear lamps in their caps. The conditions in the glass factories are such that no glass blower will permit his boy to labor there, and one of them testified that he would rather see his boy dead than to enter that industrial inferno. In the silk mills little girls, standing for twelve hours before the flying threads, are so nervously affected that they see those threads burning through their eyeballs in their sleep. The details of the horrors of child labor in America are too

numerous to catalog in this address. For two whole days I read to the Senate affidavits of eminent investigators whose names carry credibility all over this country. The sworn testimony of eminent physicians shows that the inevitable result to the children is that the nervous exhaustion which does not kill, makes degenerates of them. The irritated nerves arouse unnatural passions and result in disgusting immorality. Those of them who are not worked to death before maturity, marry early and become the parents of still other degenerates. Think of the results on the future of the nation. The lowest possible estimate is that there is no less than a quarter of a million stunted creatures coming of age and being poured every year into the great body of American citizenship. There are those who talk with horror of a dangerous class in the republic. I ask you to reflect what will be our condition when we have a million such, with malice in their minds and blind hatred in their hearts? What will be our condition when we have two million such—five million, ten million? I am a defender of property and of righteous wealth, but I warn you that we are today, by this evil, which England has long since abolished, creating a class in the American republic more dangerous to the nation and our free institutions than all the anarchists with all their bombs. Notice the effect of this same child slavery in England; how with its involved, accompanying vice it has deteriorated the British people. That was discovered in the Boer war, when a nation of forty millions of people found it difficult to raise an army of three hundred thousand men to fight a handful of Boers in South Africa; when the percentage of rejections of those that enlisted was so great, even with the low standard required, that it astounded the world, shocked the British people, and alarmed the British statesmen. When the revolting facts were uncovered by a scientific commission appointed by parliament to find the cause for the physical deterioration of the people, when all this is before us, we Americans do not dare to longer trifle with the evil here that produced those results there. It took the English statesmen, with the immortal Shaftesbury at their head, seventy-five years to tear that shame of the great nation up by the roots. With the example of England before us, and with our own personal knowledge of the situation here, it ought not to take the American people a single year to end the shame in our country in this beginning of the Twentieth Century.

I have said that the conscience of the nation has declared war

against this evil, and that the warfare will not end except in victory. It was impossible to get the bill to a vote last session, but we will the coming session in the Senate, and also in the House, unless the House rules prevent its consideration. Every device will be resorted to to prevent a vote. If a vote is secured, every resource will be brought into play to defeat it, because mighty financial interests are hostile to any legislation, state or national, that will end this evil. Great combinations of cotton mills of the South, of which some of my dearest personal friends are owners, amounting altogether to perhaps five hundred million dollars or more—the great Southern Railway that hauls their products and derives much of its revenues from them; the immense Anthracite Combine of Pennsylvania, the railroads that haul its products, and other railroads in sympathy with those; the silk mills and the glass factories, all are determined that there shall not be a stoppage of this labor which pours enormous dividends into their pockets. Also, there are some earnest, honest, sincere men who have thought that the national regulation of child labor was dangerous to state's rights. But I have no fear of any such men, because when they see the decisions of the Supreme Court which have been read before the Senate, they will see that there is absolutely no question, not only of the power, but of the duty of Congress to prohibit interstate commerce in child made goods, because that is the only way to stop child labor in this country.

The states can not do this from the nature of the case. If one state passes a good child labor law and honestly enforces it, the manufacturers of that state are at a disadvantage with their competitors in other states. And it is the fundamental right of all Americans to have equal business opportunities. Why should the manufacturers of a state, the righteousness of whose people has put a good child labor law on the books, suffer because of the conscience of that people. Why should the manufacturers of a state whose conscience has not yet been aroused, profit from that atrophy of righteousness of their people? Some two or three years ago Tennessee passed an admirable child labor law and an honest Governor enforced it. I presented to the Senate the affidavit of the Rev. A. J. McKelway, who is well known to you all, to the effect that he had personally witnessed shipments of children recruited in Tennessee, under the charge of a boss, to the industrial infernoes of South Carolina. Then, again, there can be no adequate end of the evil by state legis-

lation unless all the states have equally good laws, equally well enforced, but when will we get equally good laws in all the states, equally well enforced? Next year? Five years from now? Ten years from now? A generation? Well, perhaps, although it has never been done in anything else. Then during that thirty years, when we are letting the states make progress, what becomes of the millions of American children that are in the meantime being ruined? It has been found to be true, and it is one of the incidents of free government, a part of the price we pay for the invaluable benefits of free institutions, that in those states where the evil is worse the interests that thrive upon it are so mighty that they prevent the passage of an effective law, or if public opinion forces an effective law through, they prevent its efficient execution.

But there is one simple measure that will affect every part of this country alike, that will give the manufacturers everywhere the same conditions of labor and that will effectively stop this national crime, and that is to provide that goods made by children shall not be shipped over interstate railways to any other state than the state in which they are made. Of course if the manufacturers of South Carolina, if the anthracite miners of Pennsylvania, can not ship their products out of their own states, they will quit employing children, and such a measure as that is self-enforcible. It provides that when any manufacturer or coal dealer or other person named in the law, violates it he shall be hailed before a Federal Court and on conviction put behind the bars. And after three or four convictions we shall not find any more violations of the law.

When an army of witnesses proved the existence of the evil and the enemies of national reform were forced to admit its existence, we were met with the cry that the bill is unconstitutional. It is just such cries that cause the discontent we hear throughout the country with the constitution itself. Those men who try to make the constitution of the American republic shield great national evils, even to the point of saying that the Supreme Court itself is wrong, are the real enemies of the constitution and the creators of discontent with our fundamental laws. When in a debate in the Senate on the constitutional feature of this bill I read the famous decision of the Supreme Court in the lottery case—one of the greatest decisions ever handed down—it was stated on the floor of the Senate that the Supreme Court was wrong. Our power to enact such legislation comes from this clause in the constitution: "Congress shall

have power to regulate commerce among the states, with foreign nations and with the Indian Tribes." The Supreme Court decided in the lottery case that the regulation of Congress included the right to prohibit any article from interstate commerce that the interests of the nation demanded should be prohibited. The states could not end the lottery, because if every state in the Union but one passed laws against lotteries and that one state permitted a lottery, that lottery could ship its tickets through the express companies and over the railroads to every other state in the Union. Yet it was contended that the power over lotteries and the morals of the people was exclusively a state affair, with which the nation had nothing to do, and the Supreme Court in deciding that case said, that while it was true that a state could charter a lottery and ruin the morals of its own people, if it chose, yet the nation could say that that lottery could not ship its tickets to the other states of this nation. So the evils of lottery ceased to be by the power of the nation. And just so is it that any state that is so base can permit the murder and ruin of its own children if it pleases, and the sale of the goods they make to its own people if they choose, but the nation has the power to say you shall not ship these goods to the rest of the American people and wring dividends from other states. If we can prohibit lottery tickets from interstate commerce we can prohibit child-made goods from interstate commerce. I know this audience has many lawyers in it and every man of them will bear me out in this statement—every time that question has been before the Supreme Court for decision that great tribunal has held that the power of Congress to regulate commerce includes the power to prohibit articles from commerce. It was so held in the great leading case of Gibbons vs. Ogden, decided nearly one hundred years ago, in which the opinion was handed down by Chief Justice Marshall, and in every such case from that day to this, during the 120 years of the Supreme Court's life, it has held the same thing without exception.

"But," it is said, "if you can prohibit child-made goods you can prohibit anything else from interstate commerce. You can prohibit the farmers' wheat and corn, and that would be ruinous, and therefore no such power exists." But the Supreme Court answered that argument one hundred years ago by saying that the possible abuse of a power is no argument against the existence of that power, and that if we, in Congress, abuse the

power you have given us under the constitution, the remedy is in the hands of the people at the polls and ballot-boxes. One other case, that occurred here in your own State of Minnesota. "Congress shall have the power to regulate commerce among the states, with foreign nations and the Indian Tribes." Under that power Congress passed a law making the transportation or sale of whisky to Indians still living in the tribal relation, a crime. Some whisky, forty-three gallons, was sent into Minnesota. It was not shipped in to the Indian reservation, but some of it was sold to a single Indian who lived on the reservation. The government brought a libel against that forty-three gallons of whisky, and that case went up to the Supreme Court and is known as the "forty-three gallons of whisky case." In that case the Supreme Court, examining this whole question, said that under the power of Congress to regulate commerce with the Indian tribes, we have the absolute right to prohibit intoxicating liquors from transportation, even within a state. If we can prohibit whisky from interstate commerce why can't we prohibit child-made goods from interstate commerce? The same thing was held in the famous Lawler case, which every lawyer here is familiar with. Twenty-seven times, to be exact, the Supreme Court has held that our power over interstate commerce, is not only similar to our power over foreign commerce, but is exactly the same power (I am now quoting the exact words of the Supreme Court), and we know our power over foreign commerce. In the McKinley tariff bill, and then in the Dingley tariff bill, we have prohibited convict-made goods from foreign commerce. If the power of Congress over foreign commerce is the same as that over commerce among the states, and if we have prohibited convict-made goods in foreign commerce, of course we can prohibit convict-made goods from interstate commerce, and if we can prohibit convict-made goods in interstate commerce, why can't we prohibit child-made goods in interstate commerce? And yet every one of these direct decisions bearing expressly upon the question was deliberately omitted in the crude and hasty report of the House Committee on the Judiciary, against this bill. That report, made in haste, not even read by all the members, was designed to kill the bill. It does nothing more than to point out certain fundamental divisions between national and state action with which all of us heartily agree, and it ignores every decision of the Supreme Court to which I have referred tonight. It merely and

roughly asserts that Congress has no such power. Yet the chairman of the committee that made that report, and who now says that the nation has no power to stop child labor, actually proposed in Congress five years ago that the nation should take charge of the coal mines of Pennsylvania.

This action of the House Judiciary Committee compels attention to a recent practice in both the House and Senate, which, if it is continued, is more dangerous to free institutions than even child labor itself. You know that the course of legislation in Congress is as follows: A bill is introduced; it is referred to the proper committee. For example: The child labor bill was referred in the Senate to the Committee on Education and Labor; in the House to the Committee on Interstate Commerce, yet without either one of those committees asking for it, a resolution was introduced in each house and passed by courtesy, referring the question of the bill's constitutionality to the Judiciary Committee of the House and Senate. Then a sub-committee of this Judiciary Committee was appointed, and if that sub-committee reports against the bill, those who are too cowardly to vote upon it will say, as the bill is unconstitutional, we will spend no more time on it. Thus, you see, a junior supreme court is created for the Senate and House, which anticipates the action of the real Supreme Court, and relieves it of its duties, and Senators and Congressmen from their responsibility. It is plain that if this method prevails every law for the welfare of the people has its fate in the hands of that small committee, instead of in the hands of all of the Senators and all the Congressmen voting upon their conscience and their honor, and of the Supreme Court finally establishing the legality or illegality of the measure. Do you wonder that there is unrest among the people with the constitution, when by such a sly device any measure for the welfare of this great nation may be foiled? Such a practice as this is an insult to all the honest Senators and Congressmen who want to do their duties. It is an effective menace to free institutions themselves.

I thank God that the American people are beginning to arouse themselves about this infamy of child labor, and to inform themselves of the plans used to defeat any measure that is designed to end it. I thank God, too, that the American bar and the great body of the American lawyers who are not prejudiced in favor of the interests that are prospering by this vice, are also becoming in-

formed, especially of the absurdity of the constitutional argument against this bill. I will read to you a letter from a great American jurist, the Hon. A. H. Whitfield of the Supreme bench of the State of Mississippi, that you may know how the uninfluenced bar, even of the brave old State's rights South, regard the position of this measure: "I can not see how any one can doubt the constitutionality of the bill introduced in Congress upon this subject (the national child labor bill). I think one of the most grotesque spectacles ever presented to the American public is the frantic and clamorous defense, now being made on all hands by the railroad corporations, of the doctrine of state's rights. The utter absurdity of the whole defense and the perfect hypocrisy lying behind all this speechmaking is patent and open to the humblest understanding."

But not only has Congress the power, as decided by the Supreme Court numberless times, we have actually exercised that power and without objection. There are on the statute books some twenty or more laws prohibiting interstate commerce in various articles, and to not one of those laws was any objection made; but in not one of those cases was any great financial interest thriving on the thing prohibited. For example, we have prohibited interstate commerce in nitro-glycerine, in vessels; in all explosive materials, in vessels; in insects; in loose hay on vessels; in cattle without a certificate from the agricultural department; in gold and silver goods if they have the words "U. S. Assay" on them; in obscene printed matter (and that is done notwithstanding the fact that the constitution guarantees freedom of speech, and the courts have decided that printed matter is as much speech as spoken words); in quarantined cattle, although those cattle may be found after examination to be perfectly healthy. To not one of those laws was any objection, constitutional or otherwise, made. And yet, in spite of the existence of these statutes, which show that we have exercised the power; in spite of the express decisions of the Supreme Court; in spite of the plain words of the constitution, we are told that the effort to prohibit child-made goods from interstate commerce is unconstitutional. It is just such unworthy use of the constitution of our country, to preserve and protect infamous evils, that is bringing that great instrument into contempt. It is the men who are shielding admitted evils behind strained constructions of the constitution who are giving ignorant demagogues the arguments

and the opportunity with which they may sow discontent among the people with our fundamental law. Oh, no, our constitution does not prevent the American people from righting a wrong that shames and destroys us every day. This nation is growing heavenlier, more humane, fuller of the spirit of Christ. Our constitution does not check that great moral advance. Every day we are meeting new problems that grow out of new conditions, which in turn grow out of the higher intelligence and the loftier zeal of the nation. The constitution does not prevent us from solving the problems God has given us. For the constitution is God's work; it was divinely inspired. The men who try to make the constitution shackle our hands and manacle our feet from discharging our manifest duties are its real enemies and the real foes of free institutions.

CHILD LABOR AND PHILANTHROPY.

BY OWEN R. LOVEJOY, ACTING SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE.

What are the chief causes of those social inequalities and diseases which make the most perplexing demands upon philanthropic agencies? Do we number among them—congestion, high rent, preventable diseases, low wages, industrial inefficiency, enforced idleness, seasonal employment, vagrancy, the disorganization of the family, premature old age? If so, I want to ask you to assist us in the effort to find how far these defects in society are associated, either as accompaniment, or as direct result, with that feature of industrial activity we call "Child Labor."

If, on investigation, child labor is found to be the Ishmaelite in the camp of gainful industry, then the systematic study of its causes and its effects, both those which are direct and often pathetic, and those more subtle and remote, becomes a chief duty of the philanthropist.

I fear the connection between child labor and poverty is sometimes seen by the social worker, like the image in a lake, upside-down. Does not the charity worker too often, in his effort to meet a local need, take any offer of labor by any member of the family as a solution of the problem of poverty? It is when this labor either fails to meet expenses, or fails to develop skill or intelligence,

or is laid a burden upon the shoulders of a little child, that it becomes a menace to social well-being. It is an immediate, easy solution for certain cases of poverty, which leads to a worse disease.

We are familiar with the claim that we have no official evidence in this country that child labor is injurious, and we must acknowledge that up to the date of this Conference, America has not taken enough interest in this subject to know very much about it. This defect is about to be corrected by the investigation which has just been authorized by Congress.

But we should be guilty of negligence were we to wait until all the data is in before uttering any declaration on the subject. None know better than the representatives of the various charitable societies, that you never can wait until you have read the story of a city's need to the last chapter before beginning the work of relief. You study as you go. Otherwise, vagrancy would grow beyond bounds, and the poor and diseased would have passed beyond recovery, while you were busy diagnosing the case. True charity will not be satisfied with its effort until it has penetrated to the depth of all the problems with which it is concerned, but when the poor waylaid man on the road to Jericho is found half dead, obviously the three things to be done are in the following order: First, take him to the nearest relief station on the road and give him the care his immediate suffering requires. Second, organize the gang in the hotel lobby into a correctional posse and break up the den of thieves. Third, report to the government the necessity of providing an adequate force to police the road.

A few years ago a deputy factory inspector in New York State framed his indictment of child labor in the following sentences:

> "The most costly labor of all is child labor. Humanity and the State will pay for it long after the child has passed out of childhood and is competing with its fellow men for a livelihood against his own progeny. Society will never discharge this debt until the generations under which the practice existed have entirely passed away. It has stunted human endeavor and destroyed the brightest days of hundreds of thousands of human lives. The law which abolishes the child labor evil entirely will date an epoch in the history of the world."

Why should you workers for the well-being of your communities

set your face against the kind of charity work which moves in a circle, removing present danger at the cost of future good? And why should the community, that larger social unit, set its face against this method? Because we are convinced not only by the research and experience in other industrial countries, but by such investigations as have been conducted through private agencies in this country, that child labor is a feature of industry that violates practically every canon of the new philanthropy.

A MENACE TO PHYSICAL WELLBEING.

Child labor is a menace to the physical wellbeing of its victims. We produce, in evidence, the testimony of the English, German and French governments, which have made authoritative studies, showing the inevitable tendency to physical deterioration in those who are too early consigned to forms of labor which either lay too heavy a burden upon the body, or by their nature prevent that normal activity essential to its full development. And we cite the wrecking of the nervous system in young girls who spend the years of adolescence bent over sewing machines run at lightning speed; the bronchial and pulmonary affections of the child of the coal breakers; the languor and backwardness of the little street trader; the failing vision of the tenement house worker, and the diseases of the feet and the spine which have been recently so strikingly traced by Dr. Freiberg to the unnatural exactions of factory labor upon boys and girls at a period when study, rest, and play are the only proper employments of the human life.

DANGER THROUGH ACCIDENT AND EXPOSURE.

In many industries the maximum danger is offered through accident or exposure. In the few state reports which contain any information on this point, we have been surprised to find the degree of uniformity in the ratio of accidents to child workers. The coal mines and breakers, the quarries, the machine shops, the silk, cotton and other textile mills lay bare with startling uniformity this one fact, that in proportion to the number employed the accidents to children are from 250 per cent. to 300 per cent. higher than to adults. The last published report on anthracite mines in Pennsylvania shows that one-half the slate pickers in the breakers were

under 16 years of age. Yet, 75 per cent. of the accidents were to boys under 16, while only 25 per cent. were suffered by the men above that age. The problem here assumes an important economic aspect, for the injured child not only becomes permanently a handicapped producer, if not entirely incapacitated for gainful labor, but the philanthropic resources of the community are necessarily turned from their proper channel to meet the pathetic exigency, while the slender accumulations of a family thrift that had been slowly growing to meet some future need are quickly washed away by the deluge of this "rainy day."

There came to my notice three days ago a man who, at the age of nine years lost both hands working in a machine shop. He now has a family of eight children who are trying to support him.

The reason for the higher percentage of risk to children is not difficult to understand by those who know children. The intelligent glass-blower, called to leave the factory in the face of a storm of rain or sleet at 3 o'clock on a winter morning, will carefully wrap his throat and lungs, knowing the limits of physical endurance. But the 12 or 14-year-old boy will snatch his dinner bucket and dash out from the factory, his little white bosom bare to the storm, proud that he doesn't have to take care of himself. The playfulness of breaker boys in the presence of dangerous machinery is said to be a chief cause of their frequent accidents.

MORAL FATIGUE.

Attention has often been called to the moral fatigue which not uncommonly follows a period of premature toil. Laying too heavy burdens on the undeveloped shoulders of ambitious and willing children produces an exhaustion sure to manifest itself later in some of those forms of physical or moral break-down from which society so universally suffers. A recent report from the municipal lodging houses of Chicago records that not less than 30 per cent. of the lodgers there began work before they were 14, while 25 per cent. more began work in their fourteenth year. Data from other cities confirms the conviction so well expressed by Ruskin many years ago, that to become a man too early is to become a small man.

Some months ago, while visiting a reform school in the Middle West, I was impelled to ask the boys how many were employed as messengers or newsboys before coming there. "Hands up." A

picture in our office, taken as they replied, shows, I think, the uplifted hand of every boy in the room. This is not a conclusive condemnation of street trading, for it is but a single instance, but it at least serves to show that these little moral delinquents did not enter the paths of wrong-doing through the avenue of idleness, but of labor!

A HANDICAP IN WAGE-EARNING.

The simple industries that especially invite young children often prevent that preparation necessary to the development of efficient wage-earning. The report of the Commission on Industrial and Technical Education, Massachusetts, published last summer, demonstrates the loss in time and money to the child compelled to leave school too early to enter some of the simpler industries. It is there shown that the children who go to work at 12 or 14 years of age, at 18 years have earned less money than those who remained in school to 16 and have been working only two years. Beside this, the latter children are on the road to more rapid progress than their handicapped rivals. The little child is at first unable to command a living wage, and is put to the most simple task. In default of anything that can be dignified by the name of "apprenticeship" in modern industry, he is kept for years upon some simple process which develops neither mind nor body.

Even the most fortunate, those who are steadily employed and live to old age, never rise above the poverty line, and their needs, increasing with the growth of their families, are a constant drain on the community. Any sudden misfortune throws them entirely upon charity.

UNSKILLED LABOR.

"But, if all the people become educated to higher occupations, who will do the unskilled labor?" is often asked. The answer is that no labor which needs to be done should be done without skill. There is no such thing as unskilled labor—it is the laborer who is unskilled. Why is it almost as disagreeable to have our city streets clean as to have them dirty? Because we have, for the most part, committed the cleaning of them to unskilled labor, and the ordinary task of cleaning the streets consists in selecting a dry, windy day, and then vigorously brushing all the dirt into the air which can be made to fly. There is no work, from the gathering of gar-

bage to the painting of pictures, which can not be done better with skill than without skill. Child labor steals from its victims the time and opportunity to learn the best way of doing things and floods the market with unskilled and therefore ill-paid laborers. There are two kinds of industrial training: first, that technical training which comes through definite educational preparation; second, that which comes by experience and the general development of capacity to catch on. The child laborer is denied both. I called on a friend the day before leaving for this Conference, who showed me blotches of ink over the books, magazines and reports upon his desk. Ink that had been spattered there from his inkwell by the dusting brush of the one who cleans his office. Men often say "this kind of work is worth only so much." Frequently it is worth nothing, less than nothing; it is so poorly done that it leaves only a train of misery behind it. But the same task could be done in such a way as to deserve wages on which the laborer could live in comfort and freedom.

A few days ago some of my friends were called upon to find aid for a 17-year-old girl with a baby. Our difficulty in finding her a place was not that she had sinned, but that she didn't know how to do anything. She has developed the responsibilities of maturity without its capacity. We found on inquiry that the environment of her childhood had not only failed to give her any educational opportunity, but that she had lost all power of moral resistance because pushed to premature toil. Thus you have the problem of the institutions which must be kept up to give these neglected people an asylum and an apprenticeship, while they are oppressed with the burden of shame and despondency.

THE POVERTY LINE.

The policy of attempting to maintain a portion of the community in ignorance and upon a bare subsistence wage is a policy of wealth-suicide, for the ignorant, undeveloped, unskilled worker not only fails to give proper labor return for the meagre wages he receives, but utterly fails to know how to spend the little he has. The child worker, after having been neglected in the process of wage-earning development so that he can never do any really good work, becomes a poor consumer of the goods of the community. And this for two reasons: first, because he is poor. The prevailing wages of the child laborers in this country are so low as to fasten a millstone

of permanent poverty upon them which they are never able to drag into the best market. Second, he becomes a poor consumer, because of arrested development. Unfitted for the highest physical expression, he fails to utilize the best products of society in the matter of clothing, food or shelter. Undeveloped mentally, he has no use for the libraries and works of art which are the glory of our civilization. A thousand comforts and conveniences of a well-organized community are entirely outside the range of his experience and the chief defect in the problem of commercial and industrial life is not in the production of goods, but in their rapid and normal consumption. Is Minnesota wheat being burned for fuel because New York is overstocked with bread? No, indeed, New York has never yet learned properly to consume bread. The little children of our great city are today eating pickles and decayed bananas and drinking feeble tea and stale beer, and going hungry to bed, who ought to be feeding their frail little bodies on the wealth of your glorious fields. The forests on a thousand hills are being wantonly destroyed. Yet we can take you to many thousand homes where not even the cheap and doubtful luxury of a common wooden bedstead can be considered. We burn the candle at both ends; the neglect which makes of the child the poor worker also breeds ignorance and poverty and makes him a poor consumer. "To suppress the natural traits and force forward those acquired in industry, anticipates by artifice the cautious unfolding of characters, prematurely ripens the man, and casts upon society the dead weight of a class too old to work at forty, and too undeveloped to join the wise counsels of the elder mentors of the nation."

A BLOW AT THE STANDARD OF LIVING.

The employment of children in industries that would utilize men if children could not be secured, is a blow at the standard of living through the degradation of the labor market. This works on the principle, well known in economics, that the inferior medium of exchange always tends to drive out the superior. Here we touch the kernel of all the hard problems in the realm of philanthropic activity. What is essential to normal living? How is this essential to be guaranteed? If a certain amount and quality of food, raiment, housing, leisure, education, freedom of choice, are essential constituents of a normal life, how are they to be secured? Not, I am sure you will agree, by the doling out of relief stores.

Neither is it by committing the ignorant and helpless members of the community to forms of labor that fail to yield a living wage. I regret to say that I have frequently heard charity workers contend: "But, if you take the children out of that employment, what will become of the poor widow, or how are they going to live?" A fair question, but not to be answered by an industry which profits by subnormal wages. I found, just the other day, a new form of child labor in tenements. The little cross-bar in vest buckles, and the little pins that are set in it to hold the strap are sent to homes to be assembled for the factory. Here are the bars, perhaps an inch in length, and here the little pins to be placed, two in each bar. The assembled set is then put in a tray to be returned to the factory. The tray will hold 5,000 sets. And for this tray, requiring about two days of labor, is paid 35c.

This I call a parasitic industry, devouring more than it pays for; eating out the life of ill-nourished women and helpless children, absorbing the years that should be given to development and offering in reward 35c a tray. We used to hear much about "wild-cat money." I wish some one would invent a name for wild-cat industry—the labor that tears its victims, while it neither develops legitimate industry nor relieves poverty. Furthermore, to make a factory of the home transforms the mother from a housekeeper to a hand. And the slighter the rewards of labor, the greater the tendency for all the family to turn in and help.

We shall not meet this need by the doleful complaint that unless children are sacrificed to unproductive labor at shameful wages the poor will suffer, but by some constructive method of lifting the burdens of poverty. The scholarship plan which has rapidly developed in several cities during the past two years is serving two valuable ends. It is guaranteeing to several hundred children an education that would otherwise be denied, while making such compensation to the family treasury in lieu of the child's wages that the family is not left to suffer, and in the second place, it is serving to demonstrate in how few cases after all are the meager wages of little children essential to family existence.

I venture to express the belief that the social worker needs to write in large letters two articles of faith from which he should never depart: first, the community can not afford to dissolve the biological unit of the family by shortening the period of infancy because of either poverty, ignorance or greed; and second, any kind of work that must be done is worth a living wage.

The violation of these principles not only perpetuates the use of little children at subnormal wages which help to keep down the standard of living, but it is this large ignorant, inarticulate army of child workers which degrades the wages of the more skillful, fosters the idleness of older boys, and often precipitates those labor conflicts which disturb and cripple the industries of the people. Beyond this, ignorance and poverty are the handy tools of the professional grafter and political corruptionist.

WHAT TO DO.

These considerations offer, it seems to me, a definite program to the worker in charitable societies, social settlements, juvenile courts and the other fields of social activity. The National Child Labor Committee has aided in three years to secure better child labor laws in twenty-one states, while at Washington the first step has been taken by the government to provide for the American child scientific investigation and protection. We are seeking to spread the knowledge of the benefits to society, to the home, and to industry itself, derived from a wise and aggressive policy of industrial regulation, and we are co-operating with educators for the development of such an educational curriculum throughout our country as shall help to fit our children for useful life in an industrial civilization. Industrial and technical education is the next principle to be incorporated in the program of instruction.

But much intimate information is needed which government and state officials can not gather, and which no national committee can collect. Only those students who live in the midst of the problems of the people can bring from this social laboratory the results necessary to a thorough understanding of the problem in all its bearings. I would, therefore, lay upon you the consideration of your duty to study child labor as one of those disturbing elements in your program of constructive philanthropy. How many a man in your community is out of work because some young boy has taken his job? How many child workers of a decade ago are now the weary and worn-out remnants of a discouraged maturity? How many people whom you help are working at less than a living wage? On what kind of work are they employed? What are the chief causes of family desertion? Of family disintegration? In the filling of children's institutions—foundling asylums, orphanages, reform schools—how many are the children of those whose

education was neglected, or whose vitality has been lost too early in life? Why is it that, instead of giving the average American child ten years of schooling as we advertise to do, we are practically giving him only four years? Is it because we have fitted him in four years for the duties of life, or is it rather because we persist in many communities in perpetuating educational methods and customs that discourage the child and alienate the parent? Is your community fulfilling its duty by seeking to develop in its children the capacity for intelligent wage-earning?

New York was startled a short time ago by a report of the large percentage of backward children in the schools. Then came the later report that thousands of these children of the great city are backward because they have defective vision, over 30,000 out of 97,000 examined. But this is not the root of the problem. We want to know why thirty thousand children have defective vision? Were they born of abnormal parents? Are they having their eyes ruined by bending over some piece of home work in their miserably lighted tenement? And what are the wages they receive in payment for their eyes?

Our philanthropy is far from a success if it must continue forever to provide simply life-preservers for the wrecked and half-drowned victims of our economic storms. Those who are impelled to do good will always find ample opportunity for service to infancy, infirmity and old age. But that we must continue, year after year, in spite of the rapidly mounting social surplus, to counteract the ravages of preventable disease, to correct the evils which afflict little children through ignorance or parental neglect, to dispense what Dr. Devine has called "the bitter bread of degrading dependence," or that decrepitude and physical exhaustion shall continue to visit a large percentage of our laborers at a time when the faculties should be in their prime, are articles in the creed of pessimism to which we refuse to subscribe.

On the other hand, we must act a living faith in the principle so perfectly expressed by Dr. Patten in his wonderful book, that "economic forces can sweep away poverty, banish misery, and by giving men work, bring forth right and enduring character within the race."

DISCUSSION ON CHILD LABOR.

Rev. Stephen P. Morris, Nebraska—Have you had an experience like this—to leave your native or adopted State and be introduced to your first National Conference of Charities and Correction, to go with swelling pride about the resources and virtues of the State you represent, and then be got off in a corner by Mrs. Florence Kelley and be told that your State is away down the line in virtue, so far as children's work and interests are concerned? That was the introduction the speaker got two years ago at Portland. Not dreaming that Nebraska had such a blot upon her fair name as child labor, thinking that the law was entirely adequate to all its needs, there was a rude awakening when the facts, that were not to be denied, were adduced by Mrs. Kelley. In one of the after conferences there in that far-away State, it awakened the speaker to a sense of the duty of the Associated Charities of Omaha and of the State, not only to provide for the relief of the unfortunate and restless in our towns, but to do something practical towards the prevention of many of the evils that we were called upon to confront. It was a surprise to learn that there are two thousand well-developed manufactures in our State—to learn that there were over four thousand children under the age of fifteen years employed; to learn that in this State, first in educational lines and lowest in illiteracy, there were forty thousand children of school age not in the public schools. Then to be met on the floors of the Legislature last year and be told that we were fanatics, that we were dreamers, that we were disturbers of commercial peace. But the social workers of Omaha and of Lincoln, actuated by the knowledge they had gained and driven by the women's clubs of Nebraska to effort, led on by the chairman of the Legislative Department of the Women's Federation of Clubs in that State, prepared the law which is now upon Nebraska statute books. Met at first with the laughing contempt of many of the legislators, who said: "We will pass that law just to give you a toy to play with, for we really don't need it here." The law was prepared and sent into the Lower House, the Committee on Judiciary passed it without a dissenting voice, and it was reported on favorably by the Committee of the Whole and passed with an overwhelming majority and went to the Senate. Then we learned whether Nebraska had any need for a child labor law. Then we learned that although we could appear before the committees and give them our data, we had a great fight on our hands and powerful opposition. We won the fight, enacting a law which will not permit any employer to use a child, under sixteen, more than eight hours a day, nor more than six days in any one week, nor before the hour of six in the morning or after eight at night, nor any child under the age of fourteen in any service at any time while the schools of that State are in session.

Mrs. John M. Glenn, Baltimore—I wish to speak of one phase of the enforcement of our recently enacted Maryland child labor law. A provision of the law is that children between the ages of 12 and 16 shall be refused permits to work if unable to read or write in English, or if believed to be physically unfit for the occupation for which certificates are asked. When the passage of the law was being discussed in the Legislature, the Federated

Charities of Baltimore assumed the responsibility of seeing that families in Baltimore should not suffer unduly because of the withdrawal of their children from wage-earning. Since the law went into effect, September, 1906, there have been referred to the Federated Charities about 130 children whom the factory inspectors have felt to need charitable intervention. Of this number 18 have needed scholarships or weekly grants of money, varying in amount, to supplement the family income, which without the child's earnings became inadequate. For the large number that were not granted scholarships much work has been done in the way of providing medical care for children, in the readjustment of the work of other members of the family so as to increase the wage-earning capacity, and in securing from relatives needed assistance. Similar work has been done by the Maryland Child Labor Committee for a small number of children referred to it as being outside the city of Baltimore.

In considering the needs of children affected by the enforcement of the child labor law, a distinction has been drawn between those above and those below 12 years of age. The latter age limit has been accepted as legal for a number of years and the public has had reason to expect that children under that age should be prevented from working for gain.

In securing the funds for the scholarships, an effort has been made to reach as large a number of persons as possible. To that end, a determined effort has been made to get in touch with women's clubs and to reach the children in private schools so that they, as representing the well-to-do, might pay the price of giving an opportunity for education to the children of poor parents. An effort was also made with much success to secure for each child referred by the factory inspectors a friend who would be interested in making the opportunity for more schooling really count.

If an effort is made at the next session of Legislature to repeal the 12 to 16 year clause, we believe that we shall be in a position so convincingly to prove its value as to prevent its repeal.

Miss Kate Barnard, Oklahoma—In Oklahoma we are confronted with the most stupendous problem and the greatest and gravest responsibility that ever was laid on human life. We have been asked to write a constitution, to say what provisions shall form the fundamental law of a great State. Think of the responsibility of being at the beginning of things, of laying a foundation and establishing precedence. Think of the generations yet unborn whom we are to loose or bind.

Men and women of the Conference, we appeal to you for aid. We are young. We are inexperienced. We need the assistance of you who have had years of contact with all phases of social and industrial experience.

The population of Oklahoma is largely made up of those who migrated westward after they had lost their fortunes in the great economic struggle which is aggravated by the dense population and acute competition of Eastern life. Their first duty was to build a home to shelter themselves and their little ones. Next they sought to save a penny against old age and a rainy day. Seventeen years ago they came, and now it happens that a few have laid by a small competence, sufficient to allow that leisure which is necessary for intellectual development and a study of the effect of laws.

A year ago, when our great President Roosevelt gave us an Enabling Act, there were few who did not recoil from the responsibility of writing a fundamental law to bind one forty-fifth of the people of this Union. We visited your great cities and examined your slums, factories and workshops. Forty of your great leaders described to us the causes of all this, and they outlined the remedies. We returned to Oklahoma and determined to protect our workers, resolved for mine, mill and factory inspection, for a fellow servant law, the eight-hour day and the prevention of child labor. In order to create public sentiment we filled our press with articles contributed by the world's great minds as a free-will offering to the future development of Oklahoma's laborers and Oklahoma's children. By dint of the hardest kind of labor the victory is partially won. The Constitution of Oklahoma is written. Our endeavor has been to write that class of legislation which will produce ideal citizens for the State. Realizing the stress and strain of the American workshop, we have shortened the hours of labor to an eight-hour day. We read in the government statistics that 28 and 4-10ths per cent. of the deaths in 1900 were due to tuberculosis, and we wrote the following: Section 5, Article 23. "The Legislature shall pass laws to protect the health and safety of employes in factories, mines and railroads." Realizing that ignorance is the greatest danger of a republic, we have in section 4, article 13, "The Legislature shall provide for the compulsory attendance at some public or other school, unless other means of education are provided, of all the children within the State who are sound in mind and body between the age of eight and sixteen, for at least three months in each year."

Statistics say that our factories and industries are throwing out maimed and crippled men at the rate of almost a million a year to be cared for at the expense of the State. Oklahoma feels that a millionaire mine or factory owner should take care of the cripples produced as a result of carelessness in his own industry, and that these mills and mines have no more right to ask us to bear their burdens than a well-to-do father has to ask the State to bear the burdens of his crippled child. Therefore we enacted a fellow servant clause which will cost the employer millions of dollars each year and will save the taxpayers of the State an equal amount. It will induce the owner of industries to use safety appliances in his machinery and materially reduce the cripples, the orphans, widows and fatherless in our new State. We have done all we know how and secured the passage of all that your great leaders suggested, and we feel that both God and man approve. In regard to the employment of children we wrote the following into the Constitution:

> Section 3, Article 23. The employment of children under the age of fifteen years in any occupation injurious to health, morals, or especially hazardous to life or limb is hereby prohibited.
>
> Section 4. Boys under the age of sixteen years and women and girls shall not be employed underground in the operation of mines, and except in cases of emergency eight hours shall constitute a day's work underground in all mines in the State.
>
> Section 5. The Legislature shall pass laws protecting the health and safety of employes in factories, in mines and railroads.

We have written what you told us and what humanity and Christianity suggests, but we find a great outcry from the corporations and private interests, and the office holders and politicians of our State. They play politics with the document which contains so much of liberty and higher destiny for themselves and their fellow men. Now we, the rank and file of Oklahoma, are not interested in whether it is Republicans or Democrats who hold the next official jobs. We are interested intensely in securing the passage of a constitution which the greatest intellects of the land have helped to write.

Ladies and gentlemen of this Conference, this constitution is a part of your work. Your best minds have helped us build it. Will you stand by your work and use your great influence with your press, your pulpit, your statesmen and our great President, to see that a sentiment is created which will lead to liberty, enlightenment and prosperity? The constitution has not yet come to a vote of the people. Our courts are now hindering it with injunctions. If we can get it out of the hands of the courts and it passes a vote of the people, the president can then veto or approve.

SCHOOLS FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

CHARLES D. HILLES, SUPERINTENDENT NEW YORK JUVENILE ASYLUM.

The modern method of dealing with wayward children has been so far reduced to a system as to involve seven steps:

First, an intelligent investigation of the conditions that have surrounded the child who has been brought to the bar of justice;

Second, a patient hearing of that child's case before a sympathetic judge who has become a specialist, and who will see that the child is safeguarded during the period of detention from the contamination that, inevitably, would spring from contact with adult offenders;

Third, in case of conviction, to grant a suspension of sentence in order that the child may be placed on probation;

Fourth, when the suspended sentence has not been efficacious in counteracting bad habits or noxious environment or corrupting companionship, to commit to a school for juvenile delinquents, not because stern justice demands an "eye for an eye," but because the child must be taught the error of his way;

Fifth, sentence for an indefinite term, so that the school may have time to diagnose the child's difficulty, and may discharge him after a short stay or a protracted period, according to his response to such tests as have been applied;

Sixth, when the parents are manifestly unfit guardians, to place the child in a wholesome home or at work under such conditions as will promote the best interests of the child; and

Seventh, when the parents *are proper* guardians and the home is approved and release has been earned, to return the child to the parents on a revocable ticket; for he may have been good as the result of a prudential calculation, or he may suffer a relapse, or it may be found that when the strong hand is removed, life will bound back with all the greater recoil. Then the ticket of leave may be revoked. This sane practice obtains in many states. It makes the school's supervision mandatory, restrains the child, fixes responsibility for the faithful after-care of the child, and if the experiment fails, obviates the delay and expense of a new trial.

In practice there is no such an inflexible division of the subject as these seven paragraphs suggest, but the lines of cleavage exist, even though they are not clearly apparent.

For the moment, this session of the children's section of the Conference is concerned with only one of the seven sub-divisions, viz., that which relates to the institutions in which wayward children are confined. The other important topics have a collateral interest, but it is the wise policy of the Conference to treat each of these independently.

The difference between the juvenile reformatory of a half-century ago and its successor of today is the difference between barbarism and civilization, between the pioneer cabin and the modern mansion. Without the early, experimental design of institution, it seems probable that the accepted type of today would not have been known. The progress of evolution in the institution has been accelerated by the blunders of the builder and the administrator. The so-called industrial school traces its ancestry to the crude prison in which vicious men and women and delinquent and dependent children were herded together and left to their own devices; and the descent in the genealogical line is not so great that it can not be spanned by the lifetime of this generation. The suppression of impulses and sensibilities was not the greatest objection to the prison. The prison was not only indifferent to moral issues, but its tutelage was degrading, so that the punishment inflicted was a more pernicious evil than the offense for which it had been inflicted. The reform school came into being with the single purpose to separate old offenders from the very young. Its mission was important, but its ideality was zero. We see how stubborn and

discouraging the situation was when we realize that the public had to be aroused to action before the children in custody could be rescued from idleness and ignorance, and when this concession was gained, the teachers for these children were selected from the adult prisoners, for reasons of economy and because of the apathy of the public.

A few of the sparsely settled and very new states are in the fetters of primitive custom still, but in the progressive states of the Union, the reform school has advanced, step by step, despite the opposition that would strive to curb youthful error by cruel and repressive measures.

The essential features of the best juvenile reformatory schools today are spacious grounds on which there is not a trace of a prison wall; advanced educational facilities; instruction in music, in agriculture, in military tactics and in trades; invisible discipline, with an intelligent system of rewards; and an attempt at physical rehabilitation and moral training. Opportunities for recreation have a large part in the life of such a school and all these activities, and others, are co-ordinated into a consistent plan.

Broad acres and the elimination of the high walls are the first aids to reform in designing a school, if the school is to be remedial and not punitive. The earlier schools made the mistake of providing cramped play areas and shutting out the world and the sun and the trees. A boy will not exchange confidences with a man whose assurance of trust in the boy has for its background a forbidding wall. That wall is regarded by a boy as an invitation to get the best of the school if he can and those boys are most courageous and distinguished in the eyes of their fellows who succeed in scaling the wall. A high wall is a useless impoverishment of child life. The boy who is held in check by it or by the grating of a cell, loses the natural buoyancy of mind and becomes morbid,

The schools in these institutions are organized to meet the requirements of the best public schools. Inasmuch as it is not practicable to commit the children to the institution on the opening day of the school term—and on that day only—the problem is not identical with that of the public school problem; children are admitted to the institutions at any time and must be assimilated by the schools. They are discharged from the institutions without reference to the close of the school term. But in theory the children come straight from the public schools and on discharge re-

enter them. It is unfair to a truant child to remove him to a place of compulsory education, if that place uses methods and a curriculum that are widely at variance with, and seriously inferior to, those of the public schools. The teachers in the schools of an institution should be superior to the average teacher, because the task is increased by the fact that society has here assembled the most difficult elements of the community and by the further fact that order can not be maintained by threat of expulsion. For the same reason the size of the classes should be reduced to the least practicable number.

The manual training at first taught was purely utilitarian. It was thought advisable to keep the children employed, and for the purpose of economy they were engaged either in work immediately convertible into revenue or that would directly lessen the burden of maintenance. Contract labor was occasionally in evidence, but it is now the rule not to exploit the labor of the wards. In very many schools instructive manual training has been introduced to supplement constructive manual training.

Unremitting attention is now given to the physical condition of the children. Play is encouraged and directed, and so alternates with study and work, that time never lags. Child nature becomes impoverished and the sources of joy are cut off unless there is a healthful outgoing of all the activities of one's nature. Many schools use the gymnasium to correct spinal curvature and bad habitual attitudes. Military drill is also a potent factor. It is opposed in some states by the antagonists of the spirit of militarism. Caroline Fox, in her memoirs, tells of a Quaker of literary turn who would not undertake a translation of the Iliad, lest he should catch the martial spirit of its heroes. Military training may be conscientiously opposed on some such ground, but there are no other valid objections to it and it may be made a powerful agency in securing order and respect for authority. But physical training must be preceded and accompanied and supplemented by constant attention to the state of health and the physical condition of the children. Many have been frightfully neglected. One-fifth of those committed to certain New York institutions have contagious scalp or eye diseases, and must be immediately sent to a hospital. There are times when ten or twelve months are spent in curing a neglected scalp. Much of the difficulty could have been averted by the habitual use of soap and water, but the parents have been lacking in energy and interest.

Very many of the children have shattered nervous systems and thin, vitiated blood. The stress of the streets of the strenuous cities has been their undoing. They earn money as messengers and newsboys and spend it on push-cart food, chiefly on "sinkers." This is the reverse of the injunction to lay aside every weight, and it is this irregularity that destroys health. Even with thoughtful care, the physical readjustment in boyhood and girlhood is distressing and critical. The brain practically completes its growth in size before the child is seven; then the deciduous teeth drop and the pain of second dentition begins, followed by marked growth in the length of the face. Then the legs grow longer with undue rapidity. The small heart enlarges at the age of nine or ten; there is unbalanced muscular development, and the voice changes. And this marvelous change continues while the youth is in transit from infancy to the borderland of young manhood. Now, when Nature's severe campaign is complicated by heredity and unfavorable surroundings, it is not surprising that some children offend against the law. A knowledge of the physical condition of these children and intelligent direction of their physical culture are of extreme importance.

To this point there has been avoidance of an invasion of the controversial field. One important question in dispute is that of the wisdom of introducing co-education. The practice varies. Some Boards of Managers, those in Philadelphia and Massachusetts, for example, maintain schools for boys and girls that are located several miles apart. Others, as for example, Morganza and Lexington, have a boy's department and a girl's department on the same farm, separated by a well-defined "dead line." These are co-educational in name only. The boys and girls do not mingle at school or at play. The only advantages of this system are interchange of commodities, economy of administration and the broader experience of the Boards of Managers. It is generally held that the association of boys and girls in reform schools offers very evident opportunities for gross abuses that outweigh all advantages that are claimed. Evil is keenly attractive in the eyes of the young and curious. The difficulty in the case of many children is heightened by heredity and by the disturbing elements of passion, temperament and all the moral temptations which menace life. Under the most favorable circumstances, children cannot escape the malignant touch of surrounding evil, and way-

ward children are especially vulnerable to evil. If boys and girls are together in such schools, the freedom is greatly curtailed and incessant surveillance is required. Weak, undisciplined girls are daily in danger of meeting an overwhelming temptation which may end in moral disaster. It is unwise to make them begin the inevitable battle before an effort has been made to discipline and educate them for the fight. The will must be strengthened before it can restrain impulses and impel to a right course of action.

Nor has the attractive idea of pupil government found favor in the reform schools. The effort to engraft this principle on the juvenile reformatory was patiently and zealously and intelligently made by the superintendent of a State school, who was hospitable to any suggestion that gave promise of increasing the usefulness of that school. After a test of about two years it was pronounced a signal failure. The fundamental difficulty is that the system compels the blind to lead the blind. The ability of certain boys to command their companions is not questioned. Every superintendent can point to boy leaders and every school utilizes these young commanders. But the policy of making them supreme, of permitting them to frame and execute the laws and establish the standard of the school is clearly open to attack. The object of the juvenile reformatory is to educate the child, to help it realize the consciousness of evil and to enrich its personality. Life cannot maintain itself except through growth. It has been said that savages cannot emerge unaided from their state. "Man can not raise himself out of his degredation without contact with a higher life." If there is not perverseness in schools for wayward children there is at least the inertia that drags itself against every upward pull. No one will contend, seriously, that the average boy in a juvenile reformatory is capable of lifting life to high levels or can give to his fellows a large and deep conception of the opportunities of life. If great power and authority is only nominally conferred upon the pupils to divert attention or for the effect it may have on the public, it is not worthy of serious reflection; if it is freely conferred, it is not an adequate ideal and there can be no doubt of its insufficiency. We must not wilfully limit the legitimate claims of a child's nature. The thought at the root of the ideal is that such schools will not have discharged their obligations until they have made the most of all their opportunities. To do this they must attract to the work and place in charge of the work men and

women who will communicate their spirit, if not, indeed, mental vitality. Of all the boys in our land, those who have such obvious handicaps as result in their withdrawal from society are most entitled to guardians who will inspire, teachers who will interpret in terms of truth, and who have the strength of gentleness and patient forbearance. We should demand for this work not immature, amateur leaders, but men and women who absorb the best products of the life of their times and whose personalities are rich and deep in consequence. Carlyle regards the personal influence of great men as the largest factor in making a people. So far as the self-government theory has been worked out in reform schools, it has not the character-forming power that is required.

The cottage home type of school has rapidly gained ground and held all it has gained. The only adverse criticisms as yet advanced are the relatively heavy cost of installation and maintenance, and the feeling that the children do not deserve such good care. The arguments in its favor are so numerous and so overwhelming that there is now practically unanimity of judgment in its favor. It admits of a division of the regiment into small groups and a more exact appreciation of the personal qualities. By no chance are any two children indistinguishably the same in either mind or body. The problem of life varies with the special temperament of each separate soul. In order that evil may be evicted, it must be overcome in the thought of the mind by new interests—what Dr. Chalmers speaks of as the repulsive power of a new affection. The object of education and superior companionship is not to teach a child certain fixed formulas, but to draw out his innate capacity and give him a chance to expand. There must be a putting forth of the inner life. This development is encouraged by the individual touch and attention that come with a breaking up into small groups; it is almost ignored with the great groups in which classification is impossible and the personalities of the children are disregarded.

In all the new schools the managers use a chart and compass. There is no longer haphazard development. The grounds are surveyed and the future capacity and possibilities of the school are studied. The plan of the ultimate school is complete before parts of it are begun. It is done very much as Phillips Brooks would have one plan his life: by first drawing the circumference, and then gradually filling in the important details. Opinions differ on the following subordinate subjects:

(a) Cottage schools versus a central school.

(b) Cottage baths versus a central pool.

(c) Cottage dining-rooms versus a public refectory; and

(d) The all-dormitory system versus mixed dormitory and single-rooms.

These questions are usually determined by local conditions, individual tastes and financial considerations.

These, after all, are relatively unimportant details. The key to the whole is the cottage, and the personalities of the cottage master and matron make for success or failure in the several homes. If they are persons who can get hold of children and their motive is a desire to make young lives tell in the world's good, the school as a whole will be a success and a blessing. The best school of this class yet provided is not too good for its wards. If they have come from an untoward environment, they need the stimulus of a school with a superb setting. It is wise to make them look with loathing on the filth and vice by which they were surrounded. It is not a kindness to permit them to be contented with an overwhelmingly evil environment. "But for a divine discontent the race would settle and sink towards a center of stagnation and death. It is this discontent which is the spur to all endeavor and the inspiring impulse to life."

With the multiplication of reformatory schools resulting from an increasing population, would it not be well for the large cities to seriously consider the advisability of employing as a model either the New York City system or the Pennsylvania system? In New York City there are so-called Juvenile Reformatory Schools for the Hebrew children, the Protestant children, the Catholic children and the colored children. The courts commit to these schools according to the religious faith of the parents. The schools are owned by self-perpetuating private corporations, a fact which insures continuity of policy. These societies are reimbursed on a per capita basis. Religious teaching in such schools is not only tolerated, therefore, but is contemplated. Religion is the spring of conduct, the source of morality and in the long run it fixes destiny for men and nations. One's life is bound to follow the fortunes of one's faith. In one of the public institutions under municipal management the President of the Board is a Hebrew, the Superintendent a Catholic, and the Assistant Superintendent a Methodist. Infidelity does not participate in the official partner-

ship, but it will get the lion's share of the harvest, for such a truce, or compromise, will lead in the long run to poverty of soul and the ultimate issue will be paganism. The controversy in regard to the exclusion of religious teaching from the public school has no place in this conference. Those who attack such teaching assert that the home is the proper place in which to impart such instruction. But the *institution* takes the place of the home. It serves *in loco parentis*. The institution must stand for something —it must not stifle the spiritual side of the child's development. The main purpose of life is education in the broadest sense, the creating of character. There is something that transcends military drill and music and manual training and the school of letters, for education without true morality does not reach the center of life. Reform cannot be accomplished by external curbing. The school must offer vital principles instead of externalism of morals. The church-managed school may be narrow, but it has the merit of being in earnest. It gives the concentration that is required to make life virile. Black says: "We may bewail in sentiment the social sins, drunkenness, gambling, vice; but these can not be cured by mere tinkering methods of investigation and education and legislation." We need a breath of the spirit of earnestness if we are to make young lives more pure and strong and sweet.

DISCUSSION ON SCHOOLS FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

MR. HART, Illinois—I want to express my admiration for what I have heard of this paper. It has been my privilege to visit at Dobbs Ferry and to become thoroughly familiar with the spirit and methods of that institution. Three years ago last fall the New York Juvenile Asylum asked the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, of which I have the honor to be Superintendent, to take the agency for the care of its western wards. That institution has for many years maintained a western agency, and most of the children were located in the States of Illinois and Iowa. We suggested that they should first investigate our methods, and after investigation we assumed the care of about 400 children. We have had under our care in the last three years and a half about 550 of the children sent out by the New York Juvenile Asylum. Now I have been a sharer in my time in criticisms upon the methods pursued by some of the New York organizations in sending children west, and I am glad to be able to bear testimony that runs the other way. We have now remaining under our charge a little less than 300 of these children. It was understood on the part of the asylum that any child that became a public charge, or became incorrigible, so as to become a detriment in any way to the interests of the States in which these children were placed, should be returned to the State of New York. As nearly

as I can remember, we have had occasion to send back to New York out of 550 children in a period of three years and one-half, something like six children as incorrigible. There is about the same number of children that have found their way back to New York—perhaps ten altogether—but it by no means follows that those children that have gone back to New York have become incorrigible. A number of them have gone back with their savings in their pockets, paying their own fare, and several, after visiting their friends in New York have realized the advantages of the west as a place for the young man to grow up in, and have returned west, and have simply become absorbed. Now we regard these young people, not as a menace and not as an unloading of the pauper population of the effete east, but as a distinct and valuable contribution to our population. We consider that these young men and young women who are now grown up have become, each one of them, worth thousands of dollars to the financial interests of our part of the country. That kind of emigration from the east we welcome, and we are glad to co-operate with our friends in the east to take our share and locate them and take care of and safeguard these children, and I believe that the testimony of our friends in New York will be that our part of the work has been satisfactorily performed. We do not believe for a moment in the doctrine that State lines should be drawn in the care of dependent children. We believe that the work for dependent children is as broad as our broad land. In many cases it is a matter of vital importance that the child be transferred to a great distance from his original environment—the child who has vicious relatives, or a family history that may come up against him. Now we believe that there ought to be co-operation, but we believe, also, that the State from which the child comes should make itself responsible for the child and not allow it to become a burden upon the public charities and corrections of the State to which it goes. That is our practice. We have a law in Illinois that when children are brought in by foreign corporations there must be a satisfactory assurance given to the State Board of Charities that that child will not be allowed to become a charge in a reasonable time, and if that regulation is carried out in good faith I can not see any reason in the world why children should not be sent from states where it is difficult to obtain homes for them, or from states where homes can not be found. The complaints that have arisen in the past have arisen, first, from carelessness in locating children; and, second, on account of the lack of supervision, not looking after the interests of the child; and, third, allowing these children to become a charge on the public in the states where they have been sent.

Mr. Storrs, Michigan—I could not help, after listening to this eloquent appeal of Mr. Hart, but remember that only a few years ago we had just as eloquent an appeal from him on the other side of the question. And there is where we are in Michigan today. Every child that is brought in there that we know of that comes from another State, has to have two bondsmen, and a bond of one thousand dollars, that up to the time of his majority he will not become a public charge.

MR. LAWSON, Michigan—I have been engaged in industrial school work for twenty years, in the school at Lansing, Michigan, and I heartily endorse all that Mr. Hilles has said in his paper in regard to the management of State institutions. I have been an assistant superintendent at the Industrial School for Boys for about ten years, and in other departments ten years. We have in Lansing a school of 740 boys on the cottage plan, though we have another department where we take care of the newer boy. We have no fences to prevent boys from escaping, and we find that the new boy needs especial watching during the time when he is becoming settled in the school; we have to imbue him with our spirit before we can teach him anything.

We think there are two things necessary to the successful management of an industrial school, a feeling of interest and good discipline. The people who have charge of the separate families must be loyal to the institution and their own interests, and we have to talk to them continually and to teach them in that way.

MR. B. D. HEYWARD, Nebraska—Of course the fact as to whether the boy will have the name of having been educated in an industrial school depends upon the community to which he goes after he has been released. It is often true, as said by that young Mayor of Toledo, "all sentences to boys or men are life sentences." In Nebraska we are making our Industrial School a part of the educational system of the State, so that the boy who goes there does not feel that he is divorced from the educational life, but that he is simply transferred from one school to another one which is better adapted to care for his wants. We place our school and our course of study in accord as nearly as possible with the educational system of our State. We are supervised by the Superintendent of Instruction. We have a place on the program of the State Teachers' Association rather than a place in the program of the Prison Association. We have our school inspected by the School Inspector of the State sent out by the University. Our course of lectures is one that has been prepared by the State University. We run our agricultural department under the agricultural department of the university of our State.

Hospitals are built for the purpose of curing disease, and you are not averse to going there. We want a similar sentiment about our Industrial School, and the courts have taken it up. The superintendent of a school, if he has a boy who needs special care and teaching, goes to the Board of Education and the officer complains to the court. Our result has been that when we get this sentiment before the boy he is not afraid to go. He wants to go. And during the last year from the city of Omaha, which is 200 miles away, forty boys have been called into court, and it has been explained to them that the purpose is to give them advantages which they ought to have. When they are ready to go they are given a ticket and the commitment papers, and forty have walked up to me, and some of them walked two miles and a half and presented themselves to go to school. Consequently the work is half done, so far as the correct influence is concerned, when the boy is admitted. They go back to the public schools, after we have done

the work with them, but not with the feeling that they have been punished, simply feeling that they have received treatment given under the direction of the authorities after finding out their wants.

BISHOP FALLOWS—I want you to make it clear to the audience when these boys went from Omaha to the institution they went alone, without any officer. I want the audience to know they did not go in the hands of an officer.

MR. HEYWARD—No, there is no one present with our boys that come from Omaha. We plan to have them come alone.

MR. PENN, Pennsylvania—How much time do they lose in their studies? Can they maintain the regular rate of progress in their study that they would in the public schools?

MR. HEYWARD—They do. They are just as competent and do just as good work as the public schools can do.

MRS. AMIGH—I would like to ask whether that is a reform school?

MR. HEYWARD—It is a reform school, an educational State school where delinquents are put. We hire nothing but the best teachers we can possibly employ. We pay them eight hundred dollars a year and their board and lodging.

DR. AMOS BARLOW, St. Joseph, Michigan—First, I want to say to our Brother Storrs, the earth is the Lord's and the fullness thereof, so are all the children, and I never have found any fences that He has ever built on State lands. I hope the time will come when we will all be willing to take the child next to us; it don't make any difference whether white or black, wherever it may come from, and do by it as we would by our own. I am not ignoring the laws, but I want better things than the laws. I want love to take the place of law.

(Dr. Barlow then recited a successful instance of a seemingly incorrigible boy whom he had first sent to the Reform School and afterwards taken to his own house.)

Don't give up. Don't say boys are incorrigible until you have given earnest, self-sacrificing effort in their behalf. I believe, and I pledge myself now, to take the worst boy in the Industrial Home in Michigan, and I will adopt him personally if you give me him. To show you that I mean what I say, I took two boys at the same time, and they are both doing equally well.

MR. JAMES A. LEONARD, Mansfield, Ohio—My mind is very much more taken up this morning with the delinquent boy than with the consideration of institutions established for his care.

What is a delinquent boy? He is that horrid, unreasonable being that at the age of seven, ten, or twelve years, is unable to accommodate himself to all the rules, regulations, and conventions that the race has evolved in six thousand years. The delinquent boy is a more or less lovable or unlov-

able being that is ninety-nine per cent. good and not one per cent. bad; a strenuously active creature, generally well pleased with himself, but offensive or unsatisfactory to others—not all others, but some others.

In number the delinquent boy is legion. Parents that raise large families of boys know in their hearts that at least one in their respective flocks was clearly delinquent according to the standards set by even a generous juvenile court, but allowed to remain in the home—the natural place of training for boys—he was saved. But parents die and homes are broken up, and we shall always have the homeless boys, and we shall ever have the willful, wayward boys, and this makes institutions for delinquent boys necessary. It is gratifying to know, however, that these institutions are being humanized and are becoming less artificial, but they can never be a proper substitute for the natural home.

Nature has arranged it that one generation does not succeed another arbitrarily, but we find one generation lingering to greet the third and fourth coming after it. The Lord has so ordained it that in old age there shall be a beautiful return to second childhood, and the grandparents are seen holding the new childhood on the lap of the old childhood—and that is God's way.

I think that it was Mark Twain who said that the first serious mistake in the human family was that Adam did not have a mother-in-law, and Cain and Abel did not have grandparents.

Mr. Hilles, if you could take into your beautiful home for delinquent ones on the Hudson River their grandparents and uncles and aunts and cousins, and other human relationships, then your institution would be a true substitute for a home. We must introduce into these schools for delinquent boys everything that is possible in order to take them out of the class of the conventional institution. Anything that is done for men or women, boys or girls, that tends to aggregate them, segregate them, and classify them arbitrarily in a way that hurts self-respect, creates conditions incompatible with normal development.

Some have hoped that the number of institutions for delinquent boys would decrease. It is my belief that they will increase. We have always operating death, divorce, and desertion, all conspiring to increase the number of neglected boys, but we have in economic and social conditions still more powerful tendencies to increase their number.

The economic and social conditions that I have in mind have well-nigh eliminated the father from the life of the boy in at least half the population of the country. No country in the world has so many good mothers as America, and so many good homes. But year after year the father is being eliminated from the life of these homes. I mean that he is absent from the home, especially during the hours of activity of his children and he has no part in the control of his boy. How many thousands there are going out today early in the morning before the children are astir and coming in too late to disturb them from their rest. The boys and their fathers are strangers to each other, and especially is this so among wage-earners and business men. The business man is too much engrossed with the strenuous things in life to give attention to such a thing as a boy, and

the wage-earner, in order to support his family, including this boy under discussion, is obliged to absent himself as a breadwinner, and what is the result of it all? The boy is in the hands of the mother. We can well be thankful that the mothers are as good as they are, and that they try to measure up to the burden cast upon them, but they can not do it. If a boy is to be left exclusively to the care of father or mother, in the most of cases, let it be to the care of the mother, by all means, but the child that lacks the care and attention of both parents is unfortunate indeed. It is not in nature that a mother should discharge the duties that devolve upon the father in the care and control of a boy, and when the mother tries to do so the relations between her and the boy become strained. Her influence should be reserved for those softening effects over the boy, and that which puts "grit in the gristle" should come from the father.

The father is not only eliminated from the home influence of the boy. If he goes to Sunday school seventeen out of twenty teachers are women; if he goes to public schools nineteen out of twenty teachers are women, and if he goes to church he is in a congregation of women, and he listens to a sermon that the preacher unconsciously, in manner and substance, has adapted to a congregation of women. Do not misunderstand me. It is not that the boy gets too much of the care and attention of good womanhood, but what I am contending for is more care and attention from virile manhood. Many boys have no chance in all their lives in a natural way to come in contact with manly men. The men who can give them time and attention, on the street or in common loafing places, are just the men that should never come in contact with them.

I believe that if there is one agency that is more potent than any other in the ruin of our boys, it is the unmanly man, unworthy of his kind, with whom the boys come in contact when they are most defenseless, having put off the panoply of innocence and not yet clothed in the armor of manly righteousness.

Mrs. Adams, Boston, Massachusetts—I want to make but one comment on Mr. Hilles' very admirable paper in order to prevent the people here from going away under a misapprehension upon a somewhat important matter. Mr. Hilles referred to an experiment in self-government which some years ago was tried in the Lyman School in Westboro, and referred to it as a failure. Now the experiment did only last for some few months, and was given up, but I was very closely in touch with that school during the time it was being tried, and that experiment ought not to be dismissed as a failure to in any way discredit the system of self-government such as is carried on in the George Junior Republic as an extremely efficacious method of reform. I do not believe any institution organized and running can adopt self-government at once. At the Lyman School we have an institution almost fifty years old, with some fifty employes in the school. And we tried to introduce that system which has grown up in the George Junior Republic at Freedom, New York, where the system is so extremely successful. There, I believe, the thing has grown from small beginnings. You must have a beginning. It can not be done by the boy doing it, but my experience at the Lyman School was extremely impressive and it benefited

the boys. It brought out the natural ability of the boys. Now, while the experiment lasted at Westboro for only a few months, and was not successful in that it was given up, it has left traces in the school which are there today in the formation of responsibility and appeal to certain motives which had not been appealed to before.

Mrs. Harriet H. Heller, Nebraska—Most of the boys who go to Mr. Heyward, 200 miles across the State of Nebraska, live awhile with me first. I put up the lunch that they take on the way and then give them the carfare, and am sometimes the last one to shake their hands. The worst case of delinquency that has come to my experience in the course of two years' work in the handling of between five and six hundred delinquent and dependent children, did not go to Mr. Heyward, but went into the home of a vigorous woman who had a great heart hunger for a son. I believe that nothing perhaps but very patient work on the part of another woman who had no son would have saved this boy from the State School, but this woman came by special intervention of Providence, if ever woman came in that way. She came to find a little boy and took a fourteen-year-old boy instead, and lifted him into the path of rectitude, obedience and good citizenship. The story in detail would be interesting, but it would be long. Today the boy is admissible to the Omaha High School, and there is nothing to indicate that he will not make his foster mother proud of him. I take pains to say it before this Convention because we are working on a big problem, just about as big a problem for the hungry, sonless mother, to find a son, as it is for the motherless boy to find a mother.

Mr. George Vaux, Jr., Philadelphia, Pa.—After having sat at Mr. Hilles' feet for lo! these many years, I hardly expected that the managers of institutions would receive quite such a rap at his hands as to be charged with having boys' departments of such schools and girls' departments of such schools located close together only for their own instruction and delectation. I know that this is considered a moot question, for there are several different interests involved, and so it is possible to look at the problem from rather different standpoints. Any amount of consideration which may be carefully given to this problem can not fail to convince anyone who is not thinking simply of his own comfort as an institution manager, that there is no worse place for a girls' institution than close at hand to one for boys, and no worse place for a boys' institution than close at hand to one for girls. Several years ago at Portland, Maine, in a discussion involving this same point, I asked the question of Colonel Allison, of Cincinnati, who had had a good many years' experience in an institution where both boys and girls were committed, as to what was the nearest point to a boys' institution that it was safe to have one for girls? His answer was, not less than one thousand miles. I asked the question with this point: at that time in Philadelphia we were very carefully considering the advisability of moving our Girls' Department, which at one time had been in the country, into the country proper. The Philadelphia House of Refuge started in the country. The city grew up around it. It moved into the country. The city grew up around it the second time. Some years ago the Boys' De-

partment was moved into the country twenty odd miles from Philadelphia. The problem then was how soon could the girls follow into the country, and what was the proper location to select for them? My impression is, from remarks that have been made to me since I have been in Minneapolis, that there is some misapprehension here as to what was the decision that we arrived at in Philadelphia. It is true that our new Girls' School is to be located on a farm that is on the same line of railroad as our Boys' Department, and that it is possible we shall use the same railroad station; but one institution is on one side of the railroad and some considerable distance back, and the other institution is on the other side of the railroad and some considerable distance back. The two points are not visible one from the other, unless one climbs a high tree. We are expecting to run, as we have done in the past, two entirely separate and distinct institutions, for we believe that the boys' institution should be in one place and the girls' in another, and not in close proximity. There may be economies of administration that could be urged in favor of congregating the sexes, but these are vastly outweighed by every other consideration. If reformation of the wayward is the object in view, mere financial arguments, or the convenience of managers and other officials, are of comparatively little moment. The question must be decided on principle, and the good of the children is the only standard by which a judgment should be arrived at.

Mr. Gates, California—I have been placed on the program of the National Education Association at Los Angeles to discuss the question of the training of the incorrigible. That program was made up over a year ago, and was to have been presented a year ago at San Francisco had we not had a little fire out there that interrupted the proceedings, so I have had a year to consider the question. I have spent that year trying to find out a definition of the incorrigible, of the training of the incorrigible. What is the incorrigible? I would like to find an answer to that question. I have during this time followed out and ascertained the life history of a large number of boys who have been found guilty in the courts of California of serious crimes. Now, incorrigibility is not delinquency. The schools that we are discussing here today are schools for the delinquent. We understand very well that the delinquent is a boy who has violated some law, but I know of a man who is an excellent individual, and a splendid character, but he went down into Mr. Storr's State and borrowed a shotgun and killed some quail, for which a justice of the peace compelled him to pay ninety dollars. There are a good many people of pretty good standing who have violated the law and have become delinquent, so that that really does not determine the question, but I find in those cases that I have investigated that Mr. Leonard has hit the keynote of it, that almost the first trouble has been the neglect of the father. There is really no such thing as I find as incorrigibility, when you trace it fully down to the final end. You may find that the delinquent boy is a defective and that he could not be capable of self-control, and possibly he may be so defective that he never can be educated into self-control, but he is not incorrigible. I hoped to hear something today that would help me to

define the question of incorrigibilty, but I have listened to this discussion and I am afraid I will go back as ignorant as ever, and I am afraid I will have to face that audience at Los Angeles without knowing what the incorrigible really is.

Mr. Young, South Dakota—The purpose of institutions of the class under discussion is very wisely expressed in a legislative act creating an institution in the State of South Dakota. That act declares that the institution shall be created for juvenile offenders, and those committed to it shall be taught piety, morality and useful knowledge. It has been said by the superintendent of the institution from Nebraska that these institutions must keep abreast of the public schools, and the school teacher has been properly emphasized. There are two things we should emphasize in institutions of this class: first, that it is a school, to all intents and purposes, and it should be just as good a school as the public school. To that there should be added the family feature, for those who have lived among boys of this class, whether you call them delinquents or incorrigibles, have learned that the boy nature is a very sensitive nature, and that a boy can suffer more and can love more than a man can. We have learned, further, that this immature boy, sensitive as he is, is willing and ready to yield to all impulses for good. We have learned that this sensitive boy needs a friend, and if he is denied that close companionship which is the most blessed thing that a boy can receive of his mother, or of a father, or it may be an older brother, his reliance upon life must be through some good friend. I rejoice that such a marked advance has come over this country that now we have banished the penal features from institutions of this kind. We have now but two or three "*reform schools*" in the United States. The last legislature at South Dakota changed the name of the institution of which I have charge from the South Dakota Reform School to the South Dakota Training School. My own idea would be to call it "A State Home for Boys," because we ought to keep prominent that feature that these are boys who need the influence of good homes, and when they get to institutions of that kind we must give them that home influence to the greatest possible degree.

JUVENILE PROBATION.

BY T. D. HURLEY, PRESIDENT OF THE VISITATION AND AID SOCIETY, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

"The probation feature in my judgment is the keystone which supports the arch of the juvenile law—an arch which shall be as a rainbow of hope to all who love children and who desire that all children shall be properly cared for, and who would provide such care for those who, without it, would inevitably lead vicious and criminal lives."

This prophetic statement was made by Judge Richard Tuthill

at the first session of the juvenile court in Chicago. This was in July, 1899, and we all realize now that this statement of his honor was not in the least an exaggeration.

The juvenile court law, as you know, is plain and simple. No complicated, technical theories are involved in the statute. In short, it is but a substitution of the parental power of the state for that of the criminal branch. Where a child inherited property, the courts were always solicitous about its welfare. It was made a ward of the court, a guardian was appointed to properly invest its income, to supervise and look after its personal wants and education. Strange to say, the state in the absence of property never felt that it was called upon to interfere with the control or management of the child until it became dependent or committed some offense, and then and not until then did the state interfere. Instead of treating the child in a parental, fatherly way, it was placed in jail, prison or lock-up, resulting, in most cases, in its becoming a criminal.

The juvenile court deals with the child in a way entirely different. It proceeds at once to make it a ward of the court; to assume guardianship over it; to guide and direct it so that it may become a good and useful citizen. This work is performed in a great measure by the probation officer, a man or woman appointed by the court and invested with certain powers over the child.

The Illinois juvenile court law provides, Section 6: "In case a probation officer shall be appointed by any court, it shall be the duty of the clerk of the court, if practicable, to notify the said probation officer in advance when any child is to be brought before said court; it shall be the duty of the probation officer to make such investigation as may be required by the court; to be present in court in order to represent the interest of the child when the case is heard; to furnish to the court such information and assistance as the judge may require, and to take such charge of any child before and after trial, as may be directed by the court."

BEFORE TRIAL.

The probation officer should at all times bear in mind that the normal, natural place for a child is in its own home, provided, of course, that the home is a suitable, proper place for any child to be thus situated. The paramount duty of the probation officer, as the law provides, is to represent the interest of the child; to be, as it were, counsel to the child, and to protect the child before

court and after court the same as a good, patient, kind, intelligent father or mother would their own child.

The probation officer should have a certain defined territory and to do effective work should be limited as to number of children under his or her care. No officer should have over sixty, and certainly not to exceed seventy-five active probation cases. Having been assigned to a district, it should be his duty to be thoroughly conversant with the schools, churches, settlements, neighborhood centers, play-grounds, parks and places where children ordinarily gather. Especially should he be thoroughly conversant with all of the places of amusement, the character of people who attend such places and the character of the amusement presented for the entertainment of the audience. He should be friendly and co-operate with the police department, courts, and other public agencies. He should be as well posted as to the conditions in his district as is the captain of a fire department, who when an alarm comes in showing the location of the fire, is able to tell almost to a certainty the extent of the same. The fire department officer has studied the buildings and knows their character. He knows the entrances, both front and rear. He knows every stairway in each building, so that he is able by standing off and viewing the fire, to direct his men where the most effective work can be done and at the first sight of danger is able to give the alarm and point the way of escape. So it should be with the probation officer. All pitfalls, all dance halls, all places where children may form bad acquaintances and be liable to ruination should be thoroughly known to the probation officer.

The great work of the probation officer should be in keeping the child out of court. Courts, as we all know, are but substitutes for a well-regulated home. No one will concede that it is for the best interest of the child that it be brought to court and be made to feel that the strong arm of the law has been placed on it and that, because of its own wayward acts, the love and affection and proper guidance and direction of its parents must be supplemented by strangers. This work before court can only be done by the probation officers being thoroughly acquainted personally with the people in their district.

The instructions given the probation officer, when appointed by the Chicago juvenile court, provide as follows:

"(1) The welfare and interest of the child is to be considered.

(2) The welfare of the community.
(3) The interest and feelings of the parents and relatives.

"When cases are referred for investigation, the probation officer will be expected to inquire into the facts of the case, with a view to assist the court in deciding what ought to be done. * * * The court will desire to ascertain the character, disposition, attendance and school record of the child; also the character of the parents and their capability for governing and guarding the child, together with the character of the home as to comforts, surroundings, inmates, etc. This information will be obtained from the child, from the parents, neighbors, teachers, clergyman, police officers and various charitable agencies.

"The court will wish to determine from these inquiries whether the child should be separated from its parents, guardian or custodian. The court will not ordinarily separate children from their parents (A) unless the parents are criminal; or (B) the parents are vicious or grossly cruel; or (C) the parents are entirely unable to support the children; or (D) the home is in such a condition as to make it extremely probable that the child will grow up to be vicious or dependent. The court can not be used as a convenience for the purpose of relieving parents or relatives from their natural obligations. Whenever practicable, the child should be left in the care of its parents or of some suitable family under the supervision of the probation officer pending the final action of the court."

In case the probation officer finds it advisable to bring the child to court he should have in mind the legal status of the child and parents. It is well settled by the courts that the juvenile court law is constitutional. The only difficulty is in the administration of the law. From the fact that we have a juvenile court law and that the child may be brought to court, it does not necessarily follow that the court, without proper pleadings and a proper hearing, can invade the home and take the child therefrom. The Supreme Court of Utah, in the recent case of Mill vs. Brown, published in the 88th Pacific Reporter, defines the power of the court very clearly.

"The duty of the parent to care for the child is imposed by the moral law as well as the law of society upon the father, first, so it must likewise logically follow that he must be given the first right to discharge that duty. Indeed the common law based the right of the father to have the custody and dominion over the person of his child upon the ground that he might better discharge the duty he owed the child and the state in respect to the care and education of the child. The right and duty are therefore reciprocal, and may be termed natural as well as legal and moral.

"Before a child can be made a ward of the state, at least two things must be found: First, that the child is a delinquent or dependent within the provisions of the law; and, second, that the parents or legal guardian is incompetent or has neglected and failed to care for and provide for the child the training and education contemplated and required by both law and morals."

It will thus be seen from the foregoing opinion, which is without doubt one of the best reasoned cases that has ever been announced by the courts in this or in any other country on the juvenile court law, that the rights of the child as well as of the parents must be carefully protected. It is essential that a proper petition be filed with sufficient allegations in the wording of the statute, so that the court may have jurisdiction. While the proof required is not as strict as in the ordinary case, nevertheless it is necessary that sufficient evidence be procured so that the court may be properly advised in the premises.

There is a well-known maxim of the law, "that proof without allegations will no more suffice than would averments without proof." The court can only determine the legal effect of a judgment from an inspection of the whole record. Being a statutory court there are no presumptions in favor of the jurisdiction of the court. Therefore, the record must affirmatively show that the court had jurisdiction and that the law has been strictly complied with. Facts must be stated and not mere conclusions, and the facts, if proven, should be sufficient to establish the dependency or delinquency of the child.

The principal object of the law is to keep children in their own homes, or that they may be placed in approved foster homes. It is unfair to the child that it be reared and educated in a foster home with no right to inherit. To have the right to inherit it is essential that a proper decree of adoption be entered in the case. The adoption act was unknown to the common law. All proceedings of this nature are purely statutory. Hence, the necessity of having the law strictly complied with. Many sad cases have come under my personal knowledge, where children were denied the right of inheritance because of defective records in juvenile and other courts.

The time is near at hand when the juvenile courts will require that all papers filed in the case shall first receive the approval of a competent lawyer whose sole duty will be to assist the court in preparing and keeping correct records of the case.

AT TRIAL.

The probation officer having seen to it that the records of the case are in perfect shape, should have all evidence arranged in such a way as not to appear as prosecuting the child. The officer should never lose sight of the fact that he is the particular friend of not only the child, but all of the child's relatives and friends. He is in court not to prosecute but to represent the best interest of the child. It should not be his purpose or intention to have the child committed to an institution. This should be the last resort. He should not forget that institutions, no matter how well managed, nor how well conducted, can never take the place of a good Christian family home.

There is always a great risk in committing to institutions. The ordinary father or mother would not consent for one minute to have their boys and girls commingle, associate with and become friendly and companionable with children that have acquired bad habits. Institutions in a great measure must be conducted on the congregated plan. The fewer children in a cottage the better, but in a large state it is impracticable to consider a cottage of ten or twelve boys. Again there is a risk of institutionalizing the child. It is a well-known fact that children remaining in institutions for any length of time, especially the younger children, acquire the habit of waiting for directions in everything that they do. They seldom, if ever, take the initiative. It is tempting, too, to the managers of institutions, when they acquire good children to retain them beyond the time they have been sufficiently benefited by the institution. You know it will break up the band if Johnny is paroled. It will interfere with the class work if Willie is permitted to return home. Every time a number of children are released from the institution it requires a new arrangement of bands, schools, trades and other classes. Managers at times become imbued with the idea that they are conducting a class or a band or some other thing and not dealing with the particular child.

Occupying, as I do, the position of president of one of the largest schools in the country for delinquent boys, being that of the St. Charles School for Boys, I mention these things in the kindliest spirit.

The probation officer, therefore, should be more than careful at the trial of the case to give the court all of the information that

he is able to acquire. The child should be made to feel especially that the trial is for its benefit and that the probation officer will not at any time lose track of it. It should be encouraged to communicate with the probation officer, and the probation officer in turn should visit the child if it is practicable.

AFTER TRIAL.

The great work of the probation officer is after the child has been placed on probation. The child naturally enough is antagonistic to the probation officer, considering him as its enemy. The family likewise is unfriendly at first to the efforts of the probation officer. The first thing the probation officer must do is to become on friendly terms with the child and with the family. As to how this is to be accomplished is hard to say. Each case must depend on the particular facts and surroundings. The officer having established friendly relations in the neighborhood naturally enough becomes quite a factor and must be at all times willing to respond to any and every call that may be made upon him by any person in his district. He must be willing to enter into consultations, to give advice to children, to parents, societies and public officials. He must necessarily keep up a continuous correspondence not only with the child, but with the child's family. No set plan of action can be devised. The relation between the probation officer and some children is one of friendship and trust. Others must be ruled with a stern hand. So with the families. The family may be won through being a confidant with the older boys, or by procuring employment for some member of the family, or by obtaining relief or assistance in case the family is in distress. All of these various ways will be called into action from time to time. It follows from the above that children should not be asked to report together. There should be no treatment of children as classes. Each child has a personality of its own and must be dealt with accordingly. Any plan that undertakes to classify children will meet with failure. The probation officer should do the visiting. It is the most natural thing in the world to have a child bring a good report about itself. We all desire, both men and women and children, to appear right and hold the good opinion of our neighbors. Few, if any, of us would openly condemn ourselves.

The successful probation officer is the one who visits the home,

enters into the spirit of the family, adjusts the difficulties therein, if any. The probation officer, from the foregoing, is not only judge, but must also in many cases become the doctor, nurse, peacemaker, even missionary. He must be all things to all men. Such a person is rare indeed. Nevertheless, the statistics show that such people are to be found.

One thing is certain, the probation officer must not be moved solely by mercenary or selfish purposes. At the same time, a good and efficient probation officer is entitled to, and should receive, the largest compensation of any person in the community. He or she is certainly doing not only God's work, but the state's work and society's work. They are accomplishing more good and obtaining better results than any other class of people in the community.

SPECIAL CLASSES AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS FOR DELINQUENT AND BACKWARD CHILDREN.

BY JULIA RICHMAN, DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

The physical needs of school children are receiving attention from the whole civilized world. Expert medical examination has revealed the facts that many children are physically defective, and that not a few are mentally defective. Physical defects are met, so far as possible, by medical or surgical treatment. Where such treatment fails to restore the child to a normal physical condition, special indulgences on the part of the school are demanded and secured. The child with defective vision is brought as close as possible to the blackboard or chart; the child with defective hearing is brought within range of the teacher's voice; to the child with a weak heart or weak lungs there are allowed special concessions during play-time or in mounting stairs. In gymnasium practice and athletic sports the director of physical training relieves from violent exercise all children whose physical weaknesses might be aggravated by badly chosen movements. The mentally defective children are receiving the consideration to which they are entitled and are being segregated in ungraded classes, where each child receives such instruction as can be grasped by its feeble mental powers.

All this is most gratifying and gives clear evidence that a greater intelligence, a broader influence, and a sense of higher obligation have entered into educational thought. It is noteworthy, however, while these physical needs have received general recognition, that the general recognition of other needs of the children is slow in developing. After all the mental defectives and the physical defectives in a given class have been specially provided for, the general impression prevails that the other children in the class represent a homogeneous element and that all should receive the same quantity and quality of class instruction, and that equal results should be demanded from all. Strange that the wisdom obtained from recognizing and classifying the physical characteristics of different children should not have been brought to bear upon classifying the mental characteristics of the individual. Children's mental powers are no more alike than their physical powers. A class of fifty children may show almost fifty differences in height, weight and physical endurance. Equally true is it that they show similar differences in the quality and quantity of brain power. The failure to recognize this has prevented a proper classification of children, and indirectly it is responsible for much of the indifference to study, dislike for school, and disregard for school laws which underlie much of the waywardness and delinquency of children. An average class of fifty children of the third year or of any other year of school life, will show possibly half a dozen children so bright that the work of the grade does not give sufficient employment to their active minds. In moments of idleness they get into mischief. They grow impatient at the number of repetitions that must be made for the backward children in the class. Many of them lose ambition, and not a few of them, who might have been able to advance more rapidly, are held back because the class must go at a slower pace. On the other hand, such a class may contain a dozen pupils whose minds work slowly, whose memories are poor, whose powers do not enable them to grasp the subject matter of the grade, and after a time discouraged by their failure to understand, irritated by the fault-finding of the teacher, envious perhaps of the seatmate who, without an apparent effort, conquers that which to the duller child is practically unconquerable, these children grow to hate school, cease to make an effort which will apparently be barren of result, become idle and disorderly in class, fall before any temptation to play truant, and become the most

undesirable element in any school. It is such children who are held back at the end of the term, and growing more discouraged, more disheartened, lose the last vestige of interest in their work and become for all time what is known in school phraseology as "heavy stock." These backward children are generally from two to five years beyond the age for which the work of the grade in which they are placed was designed, and are both physically and morally improper associates for the children normally fit for the class.

Almost all the cities in the United States now have an eight-year course of instruction, which is planned for a child beginning school at five or six, at the outside limit seven, and is intended to be completed by the time the child reaches fourteen or fifteen. In the last annual report of the city superintendent of schools of the city of New York, for the year ending July 31, 1906, on pages 51 to 59 inclusive, there are tables showing the classification of the children in the New York public schools according to age and year of school. From that table it will be seen that more than thirty per cent. of the children in the New York public schools are above the normal age, notwithstanding the fact that within the last two years more than 20,000 children were taken from the regular grades and put into special classes, in order to give them the individual help that they require to advance more rapidly. (In this classification of special classes I do not include the classes for mental defectives. They were the first special classes to be organized, but in order to remove from such grading any stigma, it was decided that such classes be called "ungraded.")

The board of education has authorized the establishment of three other kinds of special classes, known as Special C, Special D and Special E classes. The C classes are known in Boston as "Steamer Classes." They are designed solely for the recently arrived immigrant from non-English speaking countries. The chief function of the C class is to give these children a working vocabulary and an ability to read in the English language, so that after a few months every child can be placed in a grade suited to its age, general mentality, and previous education. Before the establishment of classes of grade C, the fate of the little immigrant depended upon the intelligence or lack of intelligence of the individual principal or teacher. Although some principals

did their full duty by these newcomers, in many schools it was customary to place such children in the lowest grade, basing such classification upon the fact that if a child can not read or speak English, the primer of the lowest grade is fitted to his needs. As a result of so stupid a classification it was found when the child labor law in New York State was put into operation in October, 1903, that thousands of boys and girls thirteen or fourteen years of age were still in the first four years of school life, because of injudicious grading and bad judgment on the part of those who should have known better. Occasionally an extremely bright boy or girl was pushed forward, but that was the exception. Since the establishment of the classes of the C grade it is no unusual thing for a child to be able to enter an advanced grade after a few months in a special class. I have in mind one boy who came to New York from Russia, last July, who entered a special class in September, and in February entered the high school. This, of course, is an exceptional case, but had he been put into the regular grades it would probably have taken years to show the same advance.

There are causes for backwardness in school other than being foreign-born, or being dull and inattentive. There are the partially backward children, who through illness, lack of language, irregular attendance, frequent removals causing change of school, or other causes, have lost time. Such children need individual help, which is practically impossible to be given in the large class and with the many obligations placed upon the average public school teacher. In order to provide for such cases the Special E grade was established. The work of the Special E grade can not be confined to one class. Instruction of this kind is necessary for the backward, over-age children of every year of school life from the first to the sixth. It would be of value in the seventh or eighth years and might even serve a good purpose in the high school. Every child that is two years beyond the normal age of a given grade should be taken from that room to receive the personal attention that his mental needs require. It will be found that the removal of the over-age children from the regular grades will practically solve the discipline problems in those grades, because it is generally the older, backward child who is the truant and the school incorrigible. An occasional bright child gets into bad habits, as was previously stated, because his

mind is not fully occupied with his school work; but with the removal of all the "heavy stock" from the class, the teacher can do justice to the brighter children, and by special tasks, extra work and an occasional special promotion, the bright, troublesome child can be made to care for school, to respect learning, to concentrate effort, and to develop into a fine lad.

The Special D grade was formed for those boys and girls of fourteen, or well past thirteen, whose parents desire them to go to work, but who are far behind the academic requirements of the child labor law. In the D classes an earnest effort is made to arouse the child's ambition to make up the deficiencies in his earlier school life, and to give him a solid foundation along the lines of the "Three R's" and such manual work as will arouse and maintain his interest, and which may possibly have a utilitarian value.

So much for the general plan now in operation in most districts in the city. In the schools under my personal charge the special class was first introduced by special permit, granted upon my application early in 1904, although as principal of a school in another district I had organized such classes fully ten years ago. The plan has been in operation, under my personal supervision, for more than three years. In three or four of my schools the results have gone beyond my most sanguine expectations. In some of the other schools the work is being satisfactorily done, and in all the schools something is being done in that direction. But after all is said and done, no school can rise above the level of its principal, and where the principal fails to realize to the full the supreme educational and sociological value of these special classes, the work accomplished must of necessity be less satisfactory than in those schools where the principal considers the work done for these children the most important work of the school.

In the special E classes we find many a bright foreign child who has been advanced from the C grade, but who is not quite ready to be properly assimilated in a class corresponding to its age. One or two terms in a special E class give such a child a tremendous opportunity. Promotion from the regular grades is regularly made only twice a year. Promotion from the special E class is made at any time that the teacher reports that the child is ready for the next special class above.

In one school in my district there are at present twenty-two classes of special E grade. E-1 is doing first year work, E-22 is doing sixth year work. It will be seen then that the work of five years is done in twenty-two sections, making the differentiation between any two of these sections less than ten weeks. The bright child can do this ten weeks' work possibly in four or five weeks, and can then take the next step. The faithful child of neglected education goes ahead steadily. To give some idea as to what can be done in these special classes I record the following statistics, taken from the school that I have mentioned.

Of 545 cases classified as special, since the establishment of these classes, it was found that

Two hundred and seventy-eight children went along regularly in special classes, making no extra progress (the probability is that many of them would have been left back in regular classes); there were

12 children who lost one term.
255 children who did more than one grade's work in one term, as follows:
106 children who gained one grade.
92 children who gained two grades.
27 children who gained three grades.
16 children who gained four grades.
6 children who gained five grades.
4 children who gained six grades.
1 child who gained seven grades.
3 children who gained nine grades.

The 278 children who are recorded as doing the work of only one grade in one term apparently gained nothing by transfer to the special classes, but when it is borne in mind that these are the dull, backward pupils, who in the regular classes require two terms for every grade, the real gain is apparent. To a greater degree, this is true of the twelve children who apparently lost one term, even in the special classes. These, remember, are the almost hopelessly dull, who make little or no progress in the regular grades. That they succeeded in progressing through the school with the loss of only one promotion in almost three years is marvelous. The eight children who gained more than five grades in the recorded time were mainly foreigners of previous education. Although these records cover a period of three years,

many of the children have been admitted more recently, some having been in the school less than one year, the majority less than two years, and only a limited number for the full three years.

Notwithstanding the marvelous progress made by many children under this grading, there is still one condition that must be borne in mind—the really dull, stupid child is apt to be the permanent material of the special class. There are some children, unfortunately not a few, who even under this specialization fail to make any material progress along intellectual lines. They are getting more than they would have gotten in the regular grades, but even that more is something feeble. What is to be done with a child of this class? There is only one solution. If the child can not do the work planned for children of stronger mentality, it behooves us to find work the child can do. Outside of school we fit the physical tasks of a child to its physical strength. When tasks are imposed upon the child beyond its physical endurance, the children's society or the child labor committee, or the newspapers, or some other agency, steps in to protect it from such cruelty. We need in connection with each school some moral force that shall step in to rescue the mentally feeble child (and by this I do not mean the mental defective) from tasks fitted only to the child with a strong mind. The time, money and energy wasted, the discouragement, disheartenment and the hopeless attitude (first toward an assigned school task, and later towards life's tasks), that result from this mistaken policy which for centuries has helped to injure child life, are deplorable. From my own experience, and that of my best principals and teachers, it has been found that many a boy to whom book tasks are an unbearable burden, goes into the school shop and develops a keen interest in manual work so provided. It seems strange that with a quarter of a century devoted to demonstrating the value of manual training, it was not earlier discovered that the backward, dull, stupid boys who never reach the classes where shopwork forms a part of the school plan are the very boys who need it most. Equally distressing is it that it was not discovered that the girl who leaves school at fourteen, to go into factory life, needs the lessons in cooking and housekeeping far more than the girl who will remain at school and go to high school, and possibly through college. Yet in the face of the needs of such an army of children as never reach the upper

part of the grammar schools, for twenty-five years shopwork and cooking were reserved for the children of the upper grades of school life only.

With the sanity and good judgment that have characterized the official acts of the present board of superintendents in the city of New York, a disclosure of these conditions in my schools resulted in the granting of another special permit to give instruction in tenement-house housekeeping to the girls, and in simple, practical knife and bench work to the boys between twelve and fourteen, who were in the lower special classes, and who in all probability would be withdrawn from school before reaching the seventh year, where such activities are a part of the regular school course. It is less than a year since these special classes in cooking and shopwork were introduced into my schools. It is too soon to tell of their ultimate value, but it is not too soon to state with extreme emphasis that boys and girls who before their admission to these special manual classes had shown little or no interest in school, have developed an interest in their school life never before indicated in their work. That in itself is sufficient justification for the expense involved. We are now planning to get each of the mothers of these girls to come at stated times to observe the cooking lesson or the housekeeping lesson with her child, with a twofold object in view—first, to knit more closely the bonds between the school and the home and between the mother and the child, and second, to obtain from the mother some suggestions as to what we might teach the girl which would be of value in the home. Incidentally, if the mother, by observing the work of the school, grows more systematic, more cleanly and more efficient, another great need will have been met.

It was stated earlier in this paper that the organization of the special E classes takes from the regular classes practically all the truants and incorrigibles. Many of these children lose their bad habits in the special class, due to the tact, judgment and efficiency of the teacher which arouse the boy's interest and ambition, provided his bad habits are not so deeply rooted that a speedy reform is impossible. But there still remain the boy who is lawless and defiant, the boy who is a chronic truant, the boy who is arrested for delinquency, paroled by the children's court and returned to school as though nothing had happened, himself not at all impressed with the seriousness of his misdemeanor,

and his classmates learning the lesson, that even if a boy is a thief and undergoes arrest, he can come back to school unpunished and become a hero. While thoroughly in sympathy with the attitude of the juvenile court that will not send a boy to a correctional institution while there remains the hope of making a good lad of him by more personal measures, I must state that the effect of this policy upon the other boys is exceedingly bad. I believe in the parable of the ninety and nine up to the point where the ninety and nine, or some part of the ninety and nine, are made to suffer because of undue attention given to the one; and we from the school end must think of the ninety and nine. For that reason a boy convicted on a criminal charge, even though he be paroled, should not be permitted to come back to his class or school as though nothing had happened.

It was for such boys, the truant, the incorrigible, the convicted thief, that I felt something must be done, and yet in justice to the ninety and nine that something could not be done in the regular school. The establishment of a special school to deal with such cases was absolutely essential. Once again my recommendation to the board of superintendents met with approval, and the establishment of Public School 120 was the result.

Those who are interested can find in the records of the National Educational Association of the meeting at Louisville, in February, 1906, an official account of the work of that school. Recently Miss Jones, the principal of that school, furnished a report to the board of superintendents full of valuable statistics and suggestions. These documents will give information which the limitations of time will not permit to be given here. Certain facts, however, are sufficiently important to be placed here without comment. Between its establishment on October 18, 1905, and the 18th of March, 1907, a matter of fifteen school months, the whole number of pupils admitted to that school was 304, the largest number in school at any one time being 135. Of these 304 boys 51 were returned to regular public schools, 31 of them on a certificate of complete reform, the remaining 20 having left without such certificate because of removal from the neighborhood. Of the 31, 27 are reported by their present principals as giving complete satisfaction. Of the 20 who left the district, 11 are still attending regular schools, 6 of them reported as doing well; 2 boys were committed to the truant school because after

repeated effort it was found that their truancy could not be controlled and their influence upon the other boys was bad. The saddest chapter in the history of the school is the fact that 37 of these boys were committed to institutions; 4 were arrested and committed on the complaint of the principal of the school, 3 were arrested on outside charges and were committed on the recommendation of the principal of the school, 2 were sent to Randall's Island for physical defects, 25 were arrested and committed by the courts on a charge of larceny, and 3 were arrested and committed on complaint of the parents. Before the establishment of Public School 120, probably, the greater part if not all of the 304 boys sent to this school would have been committed to the truant school or to some other institution. Forty-eight of these boys have gone to work. Of these 48 all but 6 are reported as doing well, and of these 6, 5 left school at the age of sixteen, shortly after their admission; they were practically hopeless cases from the start and left too soon after their admission for any permanent reform to have been effected.

There is one fact that needs to be stated here which requires serious consideration on the part of those who would allow no discretionary power in the issuance of employment certificates. Of the 48 who went to work, 25 had passed the fourteenth birthday, but were not yet sixteen. They were kept in school and encouraged to make efforts entirely foreign to their previous habits on the promise that as soon as a definite amount of work was accomplished each boy would be properly certified and allowed to go to work. After every effort had been made by the principal of the school, the parents of the children and myself, 12 of these boys could not provide the documentary evidence of age demanded by our law. After weeks of delay and disappointment the boy still kept in school, grew defiant and sullen, smarting under a sense of injustice, realizing that he was old enough and sufficiently advanced in his studies to get to work, but held in school on a technicality, notwithstanding the promise of the principal to release him when he had met the moral conditions of the law. Not only was the effect upon such boys bad, but it had a bad effect upon the other boys who were preparing for their certificates, and it was finally agreed between the principal and myself to release these children from school on a school record, in spite of the fact that the board of health could not or would

not issue an employment certificate. I wish here in the most emphatic language to record my protest against such an interpretation of the law that makes a lawbreaker of a boy upon whom months of time and energy were expended to teach him how to be law-abiding.

There is much more that could be said along these lines, and yet it all resolves itself into one thing—give every child a fair chance. If the fair chance be not obtainable in the regular class, put him into the special class; if that measure be too mild to meet his needs, put him into the special school, under a principal and teacher specially chosen, with a course of study sufficiently elastic to find in it something that will appeal to the child, something by means of which the child will learn confidence in himself, respect for authority and the knowledge that there is hope, even for him, in the future. Only after all this has failed is it fair to place him in a correctional institution. Public School 120 has been in operation only sixteen school months. Without counting those boys at present in the school, who are doing good work, and who at the end of the term will be sent back to the public schools as thoroughly reformed, the records show that those already thoroughly reformed exceed in number those committed to institutions. Is not this sufficient testimony in favor of an extension of the work? Like all other good work, however, the success of the special class, and to a greater degree the success of the special school, depend upon the power and personality of the principal and teacher in charge. There is, however, a new spirit permeating the teaching corps, and it is my belief that the number of men and women able and willing to undertake these special problems is steadily on the increase. One thing is necessary in order to make that increase more apparent, and that is public recognition of the value of this individual and so-called missionary work in the schools. Public opinion must recognize and acclaim that teachers are to be judged in the future not so much by what their children know as what their children become, and that no teacher's work is worthy of commendation unless, because of his or her efforts, children become worthy citizens. Because the influence of the church today fails to reach so many, the obligation of the school is all the greater. Because many parents fail utterly in their duty to children, the obligation of the school is all the greater. Because the general

standards of commercial integrity and personal purity are lower than they were a generation ago, the obligation of the school to try to check this deterioration is all the greater. From every point of view the obligation of the school to the community becomes more and more vital. When every teacher and every member of school governing boards are brought to the full realization of this obligation we shall have reached an era of mental and moral reform limitless in its influence for good.

PHYSICAL STUDY OF THE CHILD.

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The value of the physical study of the child can hardly be overestimated, and is coming to be generally recognized. It cultivates a rational attitude towards the problems involved in the care of children, providing, as it does, a method and a body of facts that have in them as little of chance, and as much of certainty, as possible. It discloses principles that guide in the regulation of diet, clothing, sleep, play, work, preventive and corrective measures, and mental and moral education itself. It renders more certain, and hence more hopeful, the work of individual and social amelioration, since it affords a definite method of approach to those physical conditions in which are rooted the spiritual well-being and efficiency of men.

The physical study of the child, while a new science in its application to educational and humanitarian purposes, has nevertheless a long history. It grew up along with the medical and anthropological sciences. The list of men who have contributed towards shaping its standards and methods, is an extensive one. Italy, France, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, England and other European countries, besides the United States, have each had their distinguished representatives. For the present purpose, however, its lineage is more directly traceable through a few men, whose work may here be mentioned as indicating its scope and possibilities for the educator and philanthropist.

Beginning with Quetelet, in France, whose first work was published in 1832, and extending down through Boyd, Beddoe and Roberts, in England, to Bowditch, in our own country, we have a

series of investigations serving to establish correct methods of anthropological research, and standards of human measurement at various ages. These methods and standards of measurement were first applied to the study of American children by Dr. Bowditch, in 1877, in his study of 24,500 Boston school children. Bowditch's problem was to determine the rates of growth in height and weight, according to sex, race and environing conditions, and his results were not only important in fixing the standards of measurement for American children, but also in indicating the influence upon growth-rate of sex, nationality, food and sanitary surroundings. In 1881 Dr. Peckham made a similar study of 10,000 Milwaukee school children. Peckham also noted the variations of growth due to sex, race and environment, and added to his list of topics the relation of growth of body and lower extremities. In 1892 Dr. Porter investigated some 34,000 St. Louis school children, covering the same ground as that covered by Bowditch and Peckham, and, in addition, the sitting height of children, span of arms, strength of grip, girth and measurements of face and head.

In 1893 Dr. West studied 3,000 school children in Worcester, Mass., in a still more detailed manner, his study including height, sitting height, weight, width of head, length of head, proportion of breadth of face to breadth of head, etc. Still other studies were made, from time to time, of American school children, until a large amount of data was collected. Finally, in 1896, Dr. Franz Boas massed together all these data derived from the various studies of over 88,000 children, and constructed tables of growth in height and weight for the average American boy and girl between the age of five and eighteen. This we may accept as a fairly accurate standard by which to estimate the growth of children in height and weight.*

Next, in definiteness, to growth in height and weight, and, perhaps, even more important as an index of vitality, is the condition of the vital organs and the muscular system of children. Investigations in this direction have been centered mainly in testing lung-capacity, strength of grip, and endurance, these tests being made with specially-devised apparatus—the spirometer for the lung test, the dynamometer for the grip, and the ergograph for endurance. Investigations along these and similar lines are now com-

(* See Burk's "Growth of Children in Height and Weight," American Journal of Psychology, April, 1898; Hasting's "Manual for Physical Measurements;" and Donaldson's "Growth of the Brain.")

mon in connection with scientific physical culture. They are a part of the regular means of diagnosing the physical condition of young men in the Elmira Reformatory. They are also being more and more employed in the physical study of school children. Dr. Porter, in his study of St. Louis children, investigated the strength of grip. Gilbert has studied the motor ability, fatigue and lung capacity of New Haven school children, in relation to mental precocity and dullness. Dr. Christopher, conducting a child-study investigation for the Board of Education of Chicago, has tested the strength, endurance and lung-capacity of boys and girls in the public schools, and also of the boys in a reform school. As indicating the significance of this kind of study for general education, we may note that Dr. Christopher found the boys in the reform school, as well as the backward boys and girls in the public schools, to be inferior in lung capacity, strength, and powers of endurance.*

Another approach to a knowledge of the child, physically, is the study of its nervous condition, as indicated by certain nerve-signs. Medical science, more especially in its application to the study of mental defects, is supplying us with a mass of facts that point towards a close correlation of structures, attitudes and movements, with nerve-conditons. This correlation has its illustrations in unequal position of the shoulders, facial asymmetries, nervous hands, slouching gait, choreic movements, and numerous other structural defects and automatisms. Dr. Francis Warner, of England, was one of the first to investigate children from this point of view. In a study of 50,000 London school children, he found that about 9 per cent. showed abnormal nerve-signs, that such nerve-signs were usually associated with other defects of development and with low nutrition, and that they were also usually associated with mental dullness. Dr. Clouston, another English expert, and an alienist of note, makes the deformed palate a sign of defective nervous development, establishing by statistical study the greater prevalence of such deformities among the idiotic, imbecile and insane. Closely identified with these students of abnormal nerve-signs are those who lay stress upon cranial and facial asymmetries, and other so-called stigmata. The essential truth in the views of these various students of the abnormal, is the undoubted fact that arrest of growth is a biological phenomenon, manifesting itself in the failure of

(* See Reports of the Department of Child-study and Pedagogic Investigation of the Chicago Public Schools, 1899–1900; and Year Books of the Elmira Reformatory.)

developmental energy in the latest and most complex organs, such as those of the nervous system, and in the structures closely correlated with them.*

Still another line of inquiry in the physical study of children relates to those diseases of the nose and throat which are apt to cause bodily and mental arrests more or less obvious and grave. The diagnosis and surgical treatment of this class of physical defects are a part of the recent history of medical science. Twenty-five years ago the removal of tonsils and adenoids was not a common method of treatment. Little attention was paid to such defects except when they became so aggravated as to require medical treatment at the hands of the family physician. The slow and insidious effects of such affections in undermining health, and especially in stunting mental growth, were not understood. Medical supervision in our schools and other public institutions as yet takes little account of them. Only within a couple of years has New York City, for example, given attention to these grave, and yet glaringly obvious, affections of school children. The results of the first investigation show how important it is for the health and life of children that teachers and other public officials should at least be able to recognize the presence of these defects and prepare the way for expert aid in getting rid of them. Thus, out of 99,240 children examined in New York City, when this work was first begun in 1905, 18,131 or 18 per cent. had enlarged tonsils, while about 10 per cent. had adenoid growths, with the accompanying predisposition to affections of the ears, nose, lungs and general impairment of health and mental vigor. There is no type of the commoner physical defects of childhood that has quite such a stupefying effect upon the mental life as have these nose and throat affections. For this reason everybody who has the responsible care of children ought to know how to detect their presence. The following letter from a medical inspector in the New York schools is quoted by Dr. Cronin in a recent article on "The Doctor in the Public School," published in the Review of Reviews for April, 1907: "A boy, aged seven years, was regarded by his teacher as a hopeless idiot, and his appearance justified her opinion. His was a case of most pronounced nasal obstruction, had an acrid, persistent discharge from both nostrils, his mouth was always open, and tongue and

(*See Warner's "Study of Children;" Clouston's "Neuroses of Development;" Talbot's "Degeneracy;" Hedlicka's Anthropological Investigations," in the Report of the New York Juvenile Asylum for 1898; and Rachford's "Neurotic Disorders of Childhood.")

mucous membrane of the mouth were dry and covered with crusts of mucus. Hearing was defective, apparently about 8-16 in both ears. Mentally, he seemed hopeless; he would sit in his seat gazing blankly around the room, answering questions indifferently, and playing aimlessly with articles on his desk. He did not romp or play with other children, and his motions were sluggish and dull. He was operated on (for adenoids) and at once improved in activity, both mental and physical. The discharge disappeared, his expression brightened and he became possessed of such exuberant spirits that he become the most mischievous boy in the class."*

Finally, the physical study of the child should include an inquiry into the condition of its organs of special sense. Of these, the most important are sight and hearing. The investigation of the organs of sight and hearing, like all other branches of science, had its beginnings centuries ago, but, like all other branches of science, its application to the physical study of children is recent. It came into prominence first in Germany, at the hands of men like Cohn and Bezold, in connection with the hygiene of school life. Here it was found that an astonishingly large number of boys and girls are defective, and that these defects interfere not only with the general health of children, but also with their intellectual advancement. Dr. Cohn found that in Germany defective sight ranged from 22 per cent. in the lower grades to as much as 58 per cent. in the higher. Axel Key found that in Sweden the range was from 6 per cent. at eleven years, to 37 per cent. at twenty. In the United States, defective sight among school children ranges, on the average, about 20 per cent. In New York City it has recently been found that 30 per cent. of the school children need glasses. As regards hearing, the condition is equally bad. In Germany, Weil found that about 30 per cent of the school children are defective in hearing; in France, 17 per cent. have been found defective; in England, 27 per cent., and in Russia, 21 per cent. In this country about 20 per cent. of the school children have some defect of hearing. Considering the close relationship between visual and auditory sensations and the activities of the mind, it is evident that knowledge as to whether a child can see and hear normally is indispensable to a proper estimate of its intellectual, or, indeed, its moral character. Still clearer does this become when we take into account the further fact that eye-strain, and, indeed,

(*See Oppenheim's "Medical Diseases of Childhood;" Ashby and Wright's' Diseases of Children;" and Cronin's "The Doctor in the Public School," Review of Reviews, April, 1907.)

strained attention in hearing, tend unduly to exhaust the nervous energies and increase the emotional irritability of the child.*

This much will suffice to indicate the principal methods of approach to the physical study of the child. It remains to summarize what has been said, more especially with reference to the needs of the average man or woman who has the care of children.

1. Study of the nutritive condition:

(a) Measure the height and weight and compare with standards suggested above. Measurements should be taken once in three months, or at least once a year, and the rate of growth by seasons, or years, noted. Measurements should be taken in the stocking feet and in ordinary indoor dress.

(b) Note the size and firmness of the various organs, as the muscles. Get the capacity of the lungs by means of a spirometer, if possible. If this instrument is not available, take two measurements of the chest, at the line of the nipples, one at full expiration, the other at full inspiration. Test the strength by means of a dynamometer. If the latter is not available, some general strength-test may suffice. Test power of endurance by means of an ergograph, or by some general test, where this instrument is not available. Note whether the periphery of the body is well supplied with blood as shown by ruddiness of the skin. Note whether the heart-action is regular and strong, as shown by the radial pulse.

(c) Note the condition of the teeth, whether sound or decayed, and whether gums are in a healthy condition.

(d) Note tastes for food, whether fairly well balanced as to nitrogenous, carbohydrate and fatty elements.

(e) Note habits of eating, whether regular in appetite, whether food is properly masticated, etc.

2. Study of the Motor Condition:

(a) Note gait and bearing, whether alert, symmetrical and firm, or not.

(b) Note character of movements, whether co-ordinated or the opposite, quick or slow, excessive or repressed, spontaneous or forced.

(c) Note attitude towards play and choice of games, whether too sedentary in habits.

(*See Rowe's "Physical Nature of the Child;" Cohn's "The Hygiene of the Eye;" and Sexton's "The Ear and Its Diseases.")

(d) Note ability to use hands in manual activities, the construction of things, playing musical instruments, etc. Test by having child bring index fingers of two hands together at tips, or two pin heads, or thread a needle.

(e) Note control of vocal organs, as articulation, enunciation, etc.

3. Study of the Nervous Condition:

(a) Note general balance of body, and head-balance, tendency to spinal curvature, sparing of either limb in standing or walking; and any asymmetry in position or gait that may indicate unbalanced action of nerve-centers.

(b) Note expression of face, whether strained or relaxed, bright or gloomy.

(c) Note symptoms of overaction in muscles of face, as horizontal or transverse wrinkles on the forehead; drawn expression about eyes, nose or mouth, and twitching of the muscles of the nose or mouth.

(d) Note position of hands when extended horizontally, whether straight, drooping, or flexed.

(e) Note symptoms of chorea, as uncontrolled, convulsive, or explosive movements of the arms, hands, shoulders, head, etc.

(f) Note any undue tendency to listlessness or languor, dullness of expression, irritability, nervousness and restlessness.

4. Study of Nose and Throat Symptoms:

(a) Note breathing of child, whether through mouth or nose, when the child is quiet, as in sleep.

(b) Note facial expression, as open mouth, relaxed muscles of lower jaw, anxious expression as of discomfort or suffering.

(c) Note mental sluggishness, inattention, irritability, sullenness, etc.

(d) Examine child's throat and nose, or have them examined, where symptoms of difficult breathing are observed.

5. Study of Eye and Ear Defects:

(a) Note any symptoms of eye difficulty, as holding objects too close to eye, blurring of vision, headache, redness about lids of eye, etc. Test eyes, one at a time, with other eye covered, by using ordinary test type and astigmatic charts. Test for color-blindness by using standard colors, which test the power of distinguishing more particularly shades of red and green from other colors.

(b) Note symptoms of deafness, as inattention, failure to carry out instructions, listlessness and stupidity. Test either ear with watch, in quiet room, held on level with ear, at varying distances.

(These tests of sight and hearing are crude and yield only rough results, more exact diagnosis should be made by experts with refined apparatus, when necessary.)

In conclusion, the importance of the physical study of children, and the motive which should animate it, may be summarized by the following quotation from Dr. Cronin's article in the Review of Reviews for April, 1907, already referred to:

"It has been shown that 95 per cent. of "backward" children and of mentally deficient children have physical defects which can be remedied, thus improving their mentality as well as their physical health. Moral obliquity, of which truancy is the first manifestation in school life, goes hand in hand with physical defects. Thus, among eighty-three truants examined by the Department of health in the special Truant School in this city (New York), 87 per cent. were found to have physical defects, in most cases of a remedial character. Truancy, and its kindred ills—the "street habit" and the "gang habit"—lead to crime unless speedily checked. The records of the children's court in New York and of the similar court in Chicago show that nearly all the youthful criminals that were brought to these courts were truants, and what is more, that 85 per cent. of these children were found to be physically defective."*

*The following references, in addition to those already given, may be helpful to those interested in this subject:

1. Robert's Manual of Anthropometry (J. A. Churchill, London, 1878).
2. Papers on Anthropometry, including Porter's "Growth of St. Louis Children" and Bowditch's "The Growth of Children" (American Statistical Association, Boston, 1894).
3. Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1896–7, containing Boas' Summary of Statistics as to the Growth of American Children.
4. Studies from the Yale Psychological Laboratory, Vol. II, 1894, and University of Iowa Studies in Psychology, Vol. I, containing Gilbert's Studies of School Children.
5. Sixth Annual Report of the Board of Health of Wisconsin
6. Science, Vol. XXI, Jan. 6, 1893.
7. Report on the Scientific Study of the Mental and Physical Conditions of Childhood. Published by the Committee, Parke's Museum, Margaret street, W. London, 1895.

PHYSICAL STUDY OF CHILDREN.

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I shall attempt to supplement the valuable paper of Professor Dawson by giving a few additional illustrations of the study of children and by emphasizing study of infants. At the Congress of Science and Art at St. Louis in 1904 the field of pediatrics was outlined by able medical men. Only specialists in this branch of medical science are competent to extend knowledge, but wise organization of philanthropy may make the learning of these authorities effective and telling in practical life. The fundamental courses of schools of philanthropy, or conditions of study in them, must include anatomy, physiology, hygiene, sanitation and child study. There is danger in such half-knowledge, but still greater peril in absolute ignorance and incapacity to learn. A nurse should not pretend to be a physician, but training makes her a valuable assistant to a physician.

Professor Dawson has in mind chiefly the study of children of school age. The laboratory of the school authorities in Chicago has rendered valuable service in preventing dependence and increasing efficiency. The examinations of children have been followed by statements for the guidance of physicians, teachers and parents in the treatment of defective children. Dr. Macmillan says: "In cases of subnormal mentality, when the child was of too low a grade to be cared for in the public schools, assistance was given in finding a suitable institution where he could be properly treated, or where the child could gain something from the public schools, without detriment to the normal children, special methods and devices were suggested for meeting his peculiarities. In cases of delayed development it was often possible to make an approximate estimate of the child's mental and physical status, and the kind and amount of work that might be safely attempted. In cases of physical weakness or illness, suggestions as to possible pedagogical and home treatment were given, or a consultation with the family physician was advised."

The studies of Niceforo, in his book on "Les Classes Pauvres," deserve the attention of this conference. His careful examination of children in the schools of Lausanne gave him a basis for generalizations supported by the materials collected by other investigators.

Delinquent and wayward children were shown to be physically inferior to the children of families of well-to-do people. How far these defects were due to heredity and how far to imperfect nutrition remains an open question.

The Swiss census of defective children of the primary school age is interesting to us. On November 1, 1896, the central committee of the Society of Swiss Teachers requested the Department of the Interior, through the Bureau of Statistics, to make a census of defective children in all the cantons of Switzerland. This was done, and the results have been published. The investigation was made by means of individual schedules filled out by teachers. Taking the report for 1903 for illustration, we find that the whole number of children who entered school for the first time was 57,765 (29,031 male, 28,734 female). Of these 5,982 (3,055 male, 2,927 female) had some kind of defect—10.36 per cent. (10.52 male, 10.19 per cent. female). These defectives were of three grades: (1) idiots, 11 male and 9 female, 0.33 per cent.; (2) weak in mind in lesser degree, 297 males and 273 females, 9.53 per cent.; (3) feeble-mindedness more pronounced, 96 males and 74 females, 2.84 per cent. Physical defects were found as follows: Hearing, 11.13 per cent.; speech, 12.65 per cent; sight, 39.34 per cent.; nervous affections, 0.69 per cent.; other diseases, 23.09 per cent.; morally neglected, 0.40 per cent. Recommended to be placed in special classes, 2.74 per cent; special institutions, 2.21 per cent; excluded from school for one year, 6.79 per cent.

The medical inspection of schools, especially by the agency of trained nurses, under the direction of physicians, is making progress in our country. Experience seems to indicate the desirability of making this form of care something immediately practical and helpful, not merely investigative. This is the theme of a suggestive article in Charities and the Commons (May 25, 1907, p. 222). Teachers and parents are deeply interested in such inspections when they lead directly to actual work for the improvement of the health and efficiency of the children.

Let us go further and deeper. The study of children of school age comes too late. Many times defects could be corrected and life efficiency saved by discovery of disease or deformity in early infancy. Thus blindness of infants often arises from venereal disease which prompt measures can often remedy. The ignorant midwives of cities among immigrants are to blame for much neglect of the new-born.

But how can this study of infants be carried on? It is comparatively easy to examine children of school age, because at entrance upon school life they come under the direct supervision of the authorities. With infancy other measures must be devised and coordinated under central direction. In the charitable institutions for the care of foundlings and abandoned infants, in the temporary homes of our child-saving societies, in maternity hospitals of cities we have certain centers for observation.

In 1905 I had the happiness to visit a "consultation" of Dr. Budin at the Hospital Tarnier, at Paris, and to be guided by Baron de Rothschild, M.D., through his hospital for children. Dr. Budin, in a lecture before the Société de l'Internat, February 23, 1905, gave an account of the origin, methods and results of his "School for Mothers" ("Consultations de Nourrissons.") "When I was Chief of the service at the *Charité* I gave much attention to newborn infants, and I was struck with the answer given me by the women who had been confined there. I asked them about the children they had borne there, and often they said to me: It is dead! In fact, after going out from the hospital they had for their guidance only the vague experience of grandmothers, of janitors or herbalists. Filled with prejudices they had committed error upon error; their infants fell ill and succumbed.

"In 1891 I entered the maternity ward organized in my hospital. It was intended for forty women in confinement, but it had only one little chamber to receive two wet nurses. Two persons to care for forty infants was meager and they were required, in addition, to give breast to their own babies, which was impossible. I was obliged to take dry nurses.

"It was toward the end of this year, 1891, and at the beginning of 1892, that I had, under these circumstances, occasion to study the sterilized milk to supplement the nourishment of infants whose mothers had not sufficient supply. M. Chavane, my interne, and I reached the conclusion that milk, prepared according to the method of Soxhlet, might be useful, and by taking precautions, not dangerous. Having reached this conclusion, I requested M. Peyron, then director of public relief, to give me authority to examine at the hospital, once a week, the infants born there. I desired merely to direct the mothers, persuade them to nourish their babes at the breast as far as possible, and when the milk was inadequate to supplement it with cow's milk of good quality and

sterilized. A babe is scarcely anything more than a digesting tube; the hygiene of nutrition therefore plays a principal part."

After overcoming certain difficulties the "Consultation de Nourrissons" was established in June, 1892. The method is thus described: "The women leave the hospital trained to give suck; those who desire to continue to nurse—and we urge them with all our power to do this—receive a small card on which are marked the date and number of their confinement, the weight of child at birth and on going out of the hospital. When they return it is easy to see from the card the curve made. The infant is undressed, examined, weighed; an attendant writes on a new card the instructions given, the weight attained and the average daily increase. The women then come before me. I examine the baby; I encourage them to continue to give the breast, and give them advice, and so the consultation becomes what one of my former students, Dr. Henri de Rothschild, has so well christened "The School of Mothers" (Ecole des Méres). Children may be brought to our consultation up to the second year of age. Mothers wish too soon to feed their babies as they do themselves, and this brings disasters; it is important to continue to guide them." These consultations have been extended to several parts of Paris and to other cities. In 1894 Dr. Dufour organized the "Goutte de lait," or milk dispensary. Infants who must be bottle-fed are provided "for want of something better," with milk sterilized and prepared.

Dr. Budin uses statistics compiled by Dr. Balestre and M. Giletta of infantile mortality in France, who found in 1899 that of 1,000 infants dying during the first year of life the causes of death were:

Gastro-enteritis (diarrhoea)	385
Diseases of respiratory organs	147
Congenital debility	171
Tuberculosis	25
Contagious diseases	49

Since many infants are first enfeebled by intestinal diseases and then succumb to other diseases, Dr. Budin thinks that about one-half the deaths are due primarily to disorders of the digestive canal. These diseases are in great measure preventable. Artificial food and summer heat are conditions under which these diseases are most developed. From 1892 to 1898, at the Tarnier clinic of

Dr. Budin, only one infant of all brought to the consultation died of diarrhoea and that one was left by its mother in a creche and fed on bad milk. In 1903 another infant died because its grandmother disobeyed the orders of the doctors one day when its mother left Paris on a visit. Feeble and tuberculous infants are often saved by careful directions as to food and warmth and air.

The total mortality of infants under one year at Hospital Tarnier during the years 1898-1903 was only 46 per 1,000 per year; in Paris in general during 1898-1900 it was 178 per 1,000 per year. Owing to the greater care of infants the death rate has been greatly reduced of recent years.

Through our "District Nurses' Association," properly supported, we may hope to extend social control of infancy and the instruction of mothers in the care of their babes. Midwives should be licensed and placed under careful supervision and instruction. Local boards of health should be given power to secure registration of all births and deaths and be held to strict account. By all these means and agencies, with centralized direction and record, our cities may learn to control the forces which make for mortality, feebleness, vice, crime and pauperism, and to increase the vigor and economic power of millions of the children of the poor.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

The papers by Professors Dawson and Henderson were read at a section meeting; but their value is such that they are given without abridgment. With the papers by Drs. Allen and Knopf, on the promotion of Health in School; that of Dr. Williams, on Statistical Information Concerning the Physical Welfare of School Children; that of Miss Richman, on Special Classes for Backward and Incorrigible Children, and that of Mr. Johnstone, on the Institution as a Laboratory for the Public Schools, they constitute an extremely valuable and interesting, if not exhaustive, symposium on the subject. It has not often occurred that papers have been presented by four different committees at the same conference which so admirably reinforce each other. It would seem to indicate a very high degree of importance for and interest in the subject they have so nearly in common.

THE STUDY OF THE CHILD FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE HOME-FINDING AGENCY.

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE HARRISON DURAND, YANKTON COLLEGE, S. D.

With the kind permission of the chairman, I will limit my discussion of the topic assigned me to the work of the National Children's Home Society. I am not officially connected with that organization and have not been at any time, yet have had occasion independently, within the last year or so, to make some study of its work. It need not be said here that the Children's Home Societies have long been and are the chief exponents of the home-finding idea in child-saving work. The National Society is a federation of twenty-eight state societies, with rescue work extending over thirty-two states and territories.* As an organization it represents the home-finding plan as developed through an experience of twenty-four years, and its application at the present time over a wide extent of territory. It shall be my endeavor, then, to present the idea of the home-finding agency as shown in the origin and purpose of this society, and the methods and scope of its work.

Many years before the National Children's Home Society organized its system of caring for homeless children, the plan, in its main features, had been in operation. In 1854 that prophet among philanthropists, Charles Loring Brace, founder of the New York Children's Aid Society, began shipping the homeless waifs of New York City out to the western states. They were sent out in wholesale lots and distributed with no systematic plan for supervision by the society afterwards, yet good results were confidently claimed. About a thousand a year were provided for in that way. A careful authority on the subject (Mr. Homer Folks) gives his opinion that "it is probably not too much to say that this work affected the child problem in New York City, for the twenty years prior to 1875, more strongly than any other one factor."

In 1883 the Children's Home Society was founded by Rev. M. V. B. Van Arsdale in the State of Illinois. His plan differed from that of the New York Society in that he dealt with children singly.

*California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

California includes Arizona; Oklahoma includes Indian Territory; New Jersey includes Delaware; South Dakota includes Wyoming.

He also organized the state into districts, with district superintendents, and established local advisory boards in communities, to assist the agents of the society in their work. The earlier years of the history of the society were fraught with difficulties and shaken by storms, yet the idea of the family home for the homeless child gradually gained ground. It appealed to benevolent people as an economical and practical charity, and as the simple and natural way of providing for homeless children. Two plain facts have always impressed themselves upon promoters and friends of this charity, which they believe to have a strikingly logical connection: First, everywhere little children without homes; secondly, everywhere lonely homes without children. To serve just here as a kind of equalizing providence, helping these two needs to answer each other in mutual benefit—this has been from the beginning the ideal of the National Children's Home Society. It is summed up in their motto: "Two things which should not be; a home without a child and a child without a home."

The plan, as originally put in operation in Illinois, looked to the extension of the work in other states under the control of the parent society, which early assumed the name of the National Children's Home Society. But as the state organizations increased in importance the plan of central control became impracticable, and the state societies proceeded to incorporate under their own state laws and to take up the management of their own affairs. The state societies then united themselves for mutual help and encouragement in the federation, which is the form of organization now existing.

The plan of the work as it stands at the present is briefly as follows:

The national society has headquarters at Chicago. Its list of directors and officers includes the superintendents of a majority of the state societies. It has thus far no endowment or working fund, and it exercises no absolute authority over its constituent societies. Its relation to them is advisory, rather, its meetings and its publications serving as a clearing house of ideas and methods by which the work of the separate societies is benefited. The National Society also has charge of establishing the work in new states where opportunity is found.

It is by the individual state societies that the child-saving work is directly carried on. Each society is composed of benevolent

men and women of the state, prominent in social and public life, who give of their money and their time to its support. The immediate working head of each society is the state superintendent. Under him, in all but the newer state societies, are from one to eight assistant superintendents, each having charge of an appointed district. And finally, for the rounding out of the system and keeping watch over every nook and corner of the state, each society is aided by the local advisory boards. These boards are interdenominational in membership, and number from three to a dozen persons. They are organized in communities all over the state, and co-operate with superintendents and assistants, reporting cases of destitute and neglected children, helping to find desirable homes, and assisting to safeguard the welfare of those placed in homes in their locality. Michigan, for example, has two hundred thirty of these local boards; Illinois has six hundred forty; Iowa nearly a thousand.

The societies for the most part are not endowed and do not receive aid from public treasuries but derive their support from voluntary contributions. These contributions are from churches, public schools, Sunday schools, fraternal lodges and societies of various kinds, and also from individuals of every occupation and degree. Large gifts are rare; small gifts are multitudinous. From two to three dollars is perhaps the average size of gifts to the society. The number of persons who actually contributed one dollar or more last year to the Wisconsin society was over 4,300; to the Illinois society was 11,000. An estimate on this point, based upon such records as are available, places the number of persons contributing at present to the federated societies of the National Children's Home Society at not less than 120,000. While some of the states feel strongly the need of endowment in order to give greater stability to their work, yet this feature of contributions from great numbers of small givers is generally regarded by the society as an ideal condition in private benevolence and one of the strongest elements of its system.

It will be seen from the above account of the organization that the federation of state societies, with all their superintendents and assistants, their thousands of local advisory boards, and their tens of thousands of financial contributors, forms a vast network of benevolent interest and care thrown about the neglected children of a large portion of the country. It extends into the largest

cities, where it performs its part in child-rescue work, co-operating freely with other charities, public or private, and with the juvenile courts; and also into thousands of towns and villages and remote country districts where no other help comes.

To describe in full the methods by which the child-saving work is carried on, taking the national organization altogether, would be impossible within the limits of this paper. For one thing the method varies according to conditions and needs. And, furthermore, it must be said—and it is a fact greatly to be deplored—that some of the societies composing the federation are below par in the quality of their work. In some of the newer states the societies have not yet come to a realization of the high standard that should be maintained, and some are so hampered by poverty as to prevent their doing the work with the care and thoroughness that it deserves. The condition is deeply regretted by leading workers of the National Children's Home Society, who feel that the federated organization, with its prestige and influence, bears a certain responsibility on behalf of all its constituent societies. It should be said, however, that there has been on the whole a steady elevation in the character of the work done by the Children's home societies. They have learned much in the course of the controversy over the relative merits of the institutional and placing-out systems of caring for dependent children. They have corrected the faults that have been most strongly criticised in the placing-out system, and have adopted some of the admitted good features of institutional care. Taking, then, the average work at the present time of the older and better established state societies, such as is being done in Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Kentucky, South Dakota and many other states, the following main points in method may be noted:

1. *Separation of Children from Parents and Relatives.* It is the rule of the societies to make thorough investigation of each case reported to them to ascertain whether permanent or only temporary provision is required for the child; whether in case parents are living it is absolutely unavoidable that the child be taken from them; whether in case parents are dead there be not relatives who are in duty bound to assume the care of the child. The fact should be emphasized that the leadership and best thought of the Children's Home Societies at the present time appreciates the grave responsibility of severing the bonds of blood relationship.

2. *Receiving Homes.* The receiving homes, of which there are one or more in each state, are designed only for the temporary care of children, the period of detention in them being only until the proper home can be found. Still the societies have modified their methods in this respect in the direction of certain admitted advantages of institutional care, to wit: in many cases the period of detention is somewhat extended, giving opportunity for building up the physical condition of the child, through diet, medicine or minor surgery, and also for such course of moral discipline as may be necessary. Such process of renovation will frequently better the child's chance of securing a good home.

3. *Placing-Out.* The selection of homes for children is made with great care. The proposed home is investigated and reported on by members of the local advisory board and also by a trained agent of the society. The society must have assurance of the good character of the proposed foster parents, that they are church-going and Sabbath-observing people, that they are financially able and willing to give the child proper advantages of schooling, and that their general spirit will be kind and congenial. The home is chosen at sufficient distance from the place the child is taken from and its location is not divulged, in order that the child and his foster parents may not be disturbed in the new relationship by the child's former record or by the interference of relatives.

4 *Inspection and Replacing.* About twenty-five per cent of the children placed in homes by the societies composing the National Children's Home Society are legally adopted and so pass out from under their guardianship. Children, unless legally adopted, continue to be the wards of the societies until they become of age. Exact record is kept in the superintendent's office of each child placed out, and visits of inspection by agents of the society are made from time to time. Far more care is taken in inspection than formerly, the societies having come to realize more fully the measure of their responsibility as protectors of the rights of the children under their charge. About fifty per cent of all children placed out have to be replaced one or more times before the proper home is found. The societies welcome state inspection where that is established by law, and co-operate with the state officers in giving and receiving information designed to throw additional safeguards about the children who are their wards.

5. *Cost.* The matter of low cost in the placing-out system has

always been strongly urged in its favor as against the training of children in an institution. Under the present careful methods of the socicties, however, the cost, although still only a fraction of the cost of maintaining in an institution, is far greater than formerly. The Illinois society now reckons the cost of receiving and placing a child and caring for it through the time of wardship at $112.00. Although other strong societies set the estimate lower, it is probable that as time goes on the published figure will be raised.

6. *Allied Departments and Co-operative Work.* While the chief work of the Children's Home Societies is the placing and caring for children in family homes, yet they necessarily come in contact with a great many cases in which some other kind of help is needed. In the Illinois, Kentucky and New Jersey societies there are aid departments organized as a branch of the work, which deal with large numbers of children where only temporary relief is required. The Michigan society also does systematic aid work. All the other societies, especially outside of large cities, do more or less aid work, although it is not distinctly organized.

Within the present year the National Society has assumed control of a new branch of allied work, known as the Kittie Smith Home for Crippled Children, located at South Whitley, Ind. The founder of the home, Miss Kittie Smith, was herself the victim of a pitiful accident in childhood by which she lost both her arms, and from that time until she became of age, in 1903, was a Children's Home Society ward. By the help of others and her own patient efforts, she has gradually conquered her misfortune and become a capable, self-reliant woman, and now is seeking to help other crippled children. The National Society has adopted this undertaking after most careful consideration, being convinced that there is real need for such homes for those crippled children who would naturally be rejected as "unplaceable" by home-finding agencies. In the States of Indiana and Kentucky a movement is now on foot for the establishment of homes for crippled children, and it is hoped that the National Society may be able in time to establish similar homes in other parts of the country.

In the large cities the societies are usually in co-operation with other child-helping agencies, to whom they refer cases outside their own proper sphere. The Children's Home Societies, also, in the cities and elsewhere receive into their guardianship children from

other charitable societies and from public authorities. Thus, in many states, the societies receive children from orphanages and reformatory institutions, from aid societies and from county and town officers. In most states the societies receive children into their care by commitment of the courts, while in Illinois, Kentucky, Wisconsin and Minnesota they have regular connection with the courts as placing-out agencies for dependent children. For assuming charge of children from public authorities or other agencies, the societies usually receive compensation, although frequently only a nominal amount. But it is the rule of the societies never to refuse to accept (from whatever source) a child needing their care, even if no compensation is offered.

The fact of the magnitude and generally successful character of the work of the National Children's Home Society was emphasized three years ago when at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition it received the highest award among the child-helping organizations in this country. A work covering so wide an area had not been and even now is not generally comprehended in its entirety. The federated societies of the national organization since the beginning have restored 27,000 homeless and neglected children to their birthright of home and parental love. At present they have 13,000 children under their guardianship and watch-care. They are caring for about 3,000 new cases annually. The societies employ 160 superintendents, agents and office clerks. Their total annual expenses are about $300,000. The federated societies own twenty-one receiving homes, costing from $2,500 to $40,000 each. The total value of these homes is $297,000.

The growing appreciation of the value of this society's work is indicated by the number of men eminent in philanthropic lines whose names are connected with it as officers and directors. To mention only a few from the list: The president of the society is Prof. Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago; ex-president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction; ex-president of the National Prison Association and a recognized authority on philanthropic work. Prof. A. O. Wright, who was president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1896, and secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, was the secretary of the National Children's Home Society for three years, and was president of the Wisconsin Children's Home Society at the time of his death. Mr. Joseph P. Byers, super-

intendent of the House of Refuge at Randall's Island, New York, and formerly secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, is one of the directors of the National Children's Home Society. He was secretary of the Ohio Children's Home Society and at the same time secretary of the Ohio State Board of Charities. Of the former he is still a director. Dr. Hastings H. Hart, one of the directors and secretary of the National Children's Home Society, is superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. He was for fifteen years secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities, and for seven years general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

An impressive fact that one can not fail to observe in a study of this work of the National Children's Home Society is the conviction in the minds of many workers of long experience that for young children home training in well selected homes is able to conquer and set at naught the most vicious influence of heredity and early association. As time goes on and fuller records become available it will perhaps be capable of demonstration that the wards of the Children's Home Society have not only an equal chance in life with the average child, but a better chance. The average child does not have the help of expert advice in selecting its home, and the advantage of the society's child on this score more than offsets its original handicap of misfortune. The fact is that Children's Home Society workers grow enthusiastically skeptical of the law of heredity. The venerable superintendent of the South Dakota society, after a lifetime of service in children's charities, the ripest years of which have been devoted to home-finding work in our State, declares emphatically that *there is no such thing as a bad child.* Such doctrine has indeed a wholesome sound. These workers, with their faith in children and their faith in homes, possess a key to perennial hope for the redemption of society.

A significant fact of recent occurrence was the action of the New York Children's Aid Society in uniting with the National Children's Home Society as one of its constituent societies. This organization, the oldest of its kind in the country, which last year in addition to its aid work cared for six hundred children on the placing-out plan, was the forerunner, as has been said, of the National Children's Home Society. It now joins its strength and experience to the latter organization and becomes a part of it. The

Boys' and Girls' Society of Oregon still more lately has become a member of the national federation.

These facts point to what is becoming more and more evident to the Children's Home Societies, namely, the value of their national organization. A family with whom a child has been placed not infrequently moves to another State, yet there, the same as before, the guardian society is at hand to continue to look after the welfare of the ward. In fact, it would seem that on this account alone of the migratory character of our people, the home-finding plan of rescue work demands a nation-wide organization. It is clear also that the individual societies can be helped in time of difficulty, and encouraged and strengthened in their work, through their connection with the national organization. It is believed, moreover, that the National Society, especially if it can secure funds with which to work, is capable of great service to the home-finding cause throughout the country in the way of influencing legislation in behalf of children.

But together with these advantages arising from the federated relationship of the children's home societies there certainly appears the duty of bringing up the quality of work in those societies which are at present below the standard. National organization involves national responsibility. This problem of more fully meeting the opportunity and obligation of the National Society is pressing upon the minds of leading men in this work. It is with a view to this problem that the beginning of an effort has been made to secure an endowment for the National Society which shall yield an adequate working income for the use of the central organization. It is believed that such financial strengthening would so increase the influence and power of the National Society as to make possible the establishment of a uniform standard, and the extension of the work of the society on a sound basis still more widely among the states.

STUDY OF THE CHILD FROM THE INSTITUTIONAL STANDPOINT.

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The natural home for the child is the family into which he is born —not an institution. The natural environment of the family is the country—not the city. Other necessary things being equal, viz: health, care, companionship, educational advantages, etc., we may truly say always and everywhere "There is no place like home" for the child. With this ideal of his natural birthright before us, we are ready to study the child in the institution, bearing in mind all the time that it is the loss or failure of the home—his natural heritage—that calls into being the institution, and that we are comparing the institution life as it is with the home life as it ought to be but seldom is.

Only life, rich, full, free, natural and individual, prepares for life. The repression by system and suppression by authority that necessarily accompany well-grooved institutionalism can only become oppression to the natural exuberance of the child. The child is by nature an observer, a doer, a maker, a producer. Not to provide for the spontaneous exercise of these activities in his institutional home is simply to shrivel and stupefy the child soul. To attempt to provide for their expression by means of a narrow, strait-laced factory or military system is to take the high-bred colt from the open pasture and harness him to a treadmill.

The institution by its location, care, discipline, industrial training, educational advantages, etc., should be able to say to every child it receives: "You have come to me that you may have life and that you may 'have it more abundantly.'"

This view of the relation of the institution to the child, if realized in practice, would make short work of those formal rules, regulations and ceremonies, those unnecessary restraints and curtailments of innocent privileges, which blight the spontaneity, cabin, crib and confine the free spirit of the child. I refer to what I have seen in my visits to a number of institutions—the line-up and military step movement in such everyday and ordinary affairs as going into the dining room for meals, or the chapel for services, the uniform apparel, absolute silence at meal hours, the senseless mumbling of

prayers and catechisms, the memorizing of numerous songs adapted to adult saints, the enforced idleness of unoccupied time, the emptiness and monotony of restricted plays. All these form a dreary chapter of the institution life of children which ought long since to have been closed.

Institution training as we usually find it lacks range and motive. It is narrow and empty where it should be broad and full. The child's early training should lead into life—not into isolation. His education should interpret life to him by bringing him into rich and varied contact with nature, with social life and with the industrial interests of the community. Orphan asylums have too long been children's monasteries. I visited one a short time ago in which the children's friends and relatives were not permitted to visit them from October to May. Letters were permitted but once a month, no Sunday afternoon strolls or other recreation walks were allowed about the grounds or neighborhood, except under caretakers. A large placard in the dining room of another institution—a very small one with less than fifty children—displayed the words, "Absolute Silence," while one of the caretakers of still another—an institution of almost a thousand—waxed enthusiastic upon the excellent discipline of the place as he remarked, "Oh! but you should see the boys in the dining room at meal time—it is so still you can hear a pin drop."

The standard by which to measure the worth of the child's experience and training in the institution is found in answer to the question, Does it interpret life, prepare for life, and lead into life? When in orphan asylums and institutions for dependent and delinquent children of today we can still find, without searching for it, such useless and artificial restrictions, such empty isolation and sepulchral barrenness as above mentioned, we must admit that such institution training neither interprets life nor leads into life. No wonder institutions are criticised—they ought to be.

The first step in a change for better things is a new, a more rational, point of view. The more important principles which evolve out of this rational view are the following:

First, the child is not simply a being to be taken care of, but to be educated. Second, he reacts in a definite manner upon given stimuli. Third, the training of children is not a lottery or game of chance, scientific procedure being possible here as well as in other important fields of modern life. Fourth, institutions for

children should be regarded as school homes and not as detention houses.

Our institutions for children offer opportunities for expert work in education. The absolute control of the child—of his physical, moral and mental development, of his recreation, school life and environment—provides conditions which for educational ends is unmatched in the ordinary home, the public school, or elsewhere in modern life. As our hospitals are centers for the expert medical treatment of patients, so may our institutions for children become centers for expert teaching and training of children. Concentrated educative effort, the testing of educational theory, the effect of a given experience upon the attainment of individual efficiency, the awakening of new interests, the appeal to definite motives, the development of new incentives, etc., are all possible when the entire time, the environment and daily experience of the child may be drawn upon for educative ends.

The first requisite of all educative endeavor with the child is a good animal. For this purpose wholesome food and plenty of it are fundamental. In a well-known institution for children, a short time ago, when the first monthly bill for meat under a new administration was presented to the treasurer for payment, that worthy official's hands went up in alarm and rebuke at the great increase in the amount of meat consumed by the children. But when attention was called to the medical standard showing the daily average number of ounces of meat, per capita, prescribed for children, the bill was O. K.'d without further adverse comment. Unfortunately, but few institution dietaries are scientifically grounded in their make up, and perhaps fewer treasurers are so sensible as to see that the question of the quantity of meat needed in an institution for children may and should be removed entirely from the field of controversy by medical authority. But the quantity of meat required for growing children is only one of the many features of institution life that should receive scientific treatment. The whole problem of institution dietary, and the physical development of the child is a question of hygiene and growth rather than one of economic value estimated in dollars and cents. The only way to know whether children are making satisfactory progress in their physical development is to balance the scalebeam, draw the tapeline and compare the results with standard tables of weights and measures derived for that purpose. This should be done often

enough during the growing period of every child to know whether his physical wellbeing is properly cared for or neglected.

With the animal well provided for, we may turn to the first experience of the child possessing educative possibilities, namely *play*. From the standpoint of education and training for life, play has never yet functioned in a large and important way. It has rarely received the serious consideration of even wise parents and teachers. As an instrument of education, physical, social and moral, play outranks any other experience of childhood. Not to seize upon this natural interest with all its resourcefulness for culture and power in training the child is to neglect the most important asset which child experience offers. Play is the first form or stage of most of the serious purposes of later life. The beginnings of language, literature, art, domestic and scientific interest, common industries, etc., are all play forms. They are the foundation and foreground, the true microcosm of adult experience. Other foundation can no man lay than is laid in the nature of the child. To ignore it, or to fail to build upon it, will surely arrest the development of the child and stupefy his mental faculties.

The plays of institution children when confined, as they usually are, within narrow quarters, are lacking in thought content, imaginative form and interest. Where scores must play within one room or yard only the simplest and least educative kinds of play may be indulged in. Play rich in imaginative content, plays which touch life and represent adult experience in miniature, are debarred. Using playthings without individual ownership, forced by the limitations of over-crowded and restricted bounds to engage in forms of play void of imaginative depth or thought content, like tag-play, sliding down a board, rolling a hoop, teasing smaller children, etc., neither prepares for life nor leads into life.

Thirty-five playhouses, representing the ownership of a hundred children, have been built this spring on our orphanage grounds. They are the result of weeks of planning and building, of innumerable purchases, trades and exchanges—to obtain materials and tools, lumber, posts, barrel staves, canvas, building paper, nails, hammers, saws, ladders, etc. There is more individual initiative, more applied mechanics, more economic adjustment—to make ends meet —more motive and purpose in such play enterprises than in any other experience of childhood. Given a plastic environment, ample play space, freedom to plan work, plenty of raw material—not

finished tools or toys—and children's play will develop into life interests and prepare for life's trials and purposes far beyond any possible attainment by formal instruction at this period of growth.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Along with a rich play experience should come an all-around industrial training. Education may be defined as preparation for life by intelligent participation in such modes of life as are for the time being comprehensible to the learner. Play—such as above described—develops into work of which it was the educational foreground and presupposition.

From the child's play interests we may easily derive the method for his industrial experience. Here again our test question applies—does the training prescribed interpret life and lead into life?

In order that it may do this the child must see the meaning and use of what he does. Following a course of models in the manual training classes, sewing classes, etc., will not meet the requirements of the above test. Rendering a useful and necessary service in any of the above forms of industry will furnish the motive for an educative experience. In our public school education industrial training should be the common ground where school and home meet. In this experience at least the schools can not work to advantage independently of the home. The weakness and futility of much of the attempted industrial training of the public schools lies in the fact that it has so little meaning to the child—is so remote from life interests. Motive comes with meaning. The home-making industries are full of meaning to the child and also pregnant with educative worth. Here is where the institution life and school have the advantage over the family life and public school. The industrial training of the institution may be necessary and practical work, whereas in the public school where the industrial work serves no useful purpose in the home it becomes formal, academic and lacks meaning. An institution for children which does not provide and require a daily experience and responsibility along the lines of industrial training is either a charity boarding house or a prison.

Every child in the institution should render a service to it. It is important that he should see and feel that he is doing this,

for therein lies its greatest educational worth. The modern home breaks down at this point. The loss of parental control and decline of parental authority have kept pace with the decline of the home as an industrial center. Eliminate the element of service from the home life of the child, whether he lives in the family or the institution, and you have robbed it of one of the strongest forces which hold its members together. Industrial service is the child's most effective manner of participating in his home, and his appreciation of the home depends upon the extent to which, through industrial effort, he shares in the making of it.

By industrial training here I do not mean the learning of a trade—nor does it mean simply work with the hands. It means a training in the fundamental and home-making industries, the handling of ordinary tools and implements with which work is done about the home—the jackknife, hammer, saw, plane, ax, hoe, spade, broom, shovel, dustpan, brush, scrubcloth, chisel, screw-driver, rolling pin, molding board and kitchen utensils, together with a knowledge through practical experience of the materials and various processes with which these implements have to do.

The cottage plan of institutional life offers much better opportunities for the cultivation of this feature of the child's education than the majority of homes. It possesses two features that the modern American home is slowly losing—obedience to authority and a house full of children. The mutual exchange of services among the various members of such a household—the younger assisting the older—the older taking care of the younger —all performing the necessary duties and carrying the responsibilities of the household, gives the home a large place in the child's development.

The strength or weakness of home training, school training or institution training is measured in terms of individual character and efficiency. By character I mean the moral quality of the will, and by efficiency its force in action. These should constitute a definite aim in the training of children always and everywhere. Industrial training moves toward this aim more surely than any other kind of educational experience. The child will reveal as well as develop character more completely in his industrial occupation than anywhere else. Industrial training—not of the fac-

tory type, but of the old-fashioned, home-making, home-sustaining, bread-winning kind—is the native soil in which honesty, moral responsibility, thrift, independence and moral ideas germinate and grow into character.

In the ordinary school classroom the child is one of a crowd, all of whom have a common task to perform. In industrial work he is alone with an individual piece of work to perform. In the classroom he can absorb much from others, or frequently bluff it through with but slack preparation. In industrial work there is no absorption from others, and no shrinkage of the duty assigned. It is just so many square yards of floor to scrub, so many dishes to wash, so much wood to cut, or so much ground to spade up. In the classroom memory may come to the aid of the dilatory pupil, the association of ideas will help out, suggestions from the teacher or other pupils may give him his cue and thus ease up the task, but the dogged persistence of an industrial task yields to nothing but days' works. Hence the discipline of industrial work faithfully performed is of high order. It has laid the foundation of character in more great men than any other experience of childhood. In it lay the secret of the heroic type of manhood exemplified in the sturdy and patriotic yeomen of the colonial and revolutionary times. The industrial training we plead for must have the following characteristics: First, it must be wholesome for the physical development of the growing child. Second, it must include range and change—must not be one and the same thing from year to year. Third, it must, like the environment, be rich in ideas, that is, must be educative. Fourth, it must be of a general not a technical character, and home-making not simply economic in its nature. The factory type of work does not meet these requirements and must be excluded from childhood. To attempt to educate children in institutions without providing a thorough system of industrial training is simply to run a charity boarding house and send the boarders to school.

The field of industrial training for the boys and girls of our Orphanage includes housekeeping, cooking, sewing, dining room service, chamber service, laundry work, manual training, gardening, poultry raising and floriculture. About forty individual vegetable gardens, as many flower gardens, together with poultry colonies, care of brooders, incubators and horses provide for the outdoor industrial experience.

ECONOMIC TRAINING.

Economic training develops naturally out of industrial training. Like play, it has received but little attention from institution managers. The economic interest is one of the dominant interests of society. It should receive special emphasis in the training of orphan children. Not to awaken and rightly develop this interest in children who are to become self-supporting at such an early age is to neglect one of the most important features of their education. To send them out with right views concerning questions of wages, values, expenses, etc., is to safeguard them against economic loss, waste and wage imposition in a multitude of ways. In this work we are attempting to solve a problem of four factors, namely, how to earn money, how to save money, and how to spend and give money wisely. Time forbids a more extended treatment of the topic than the statement of a few principles. Money paid to children must be earned, there should be no charity in the transaction. Only such work as belongs to the regular wage-earning positions of the institution should be paid for. No children should be put on the pay roll who have not served the home for several years in performing the multitude of minor duties which belong to every well regulated household. It is in rendering such services outside of school hours that the child learns to appreciate and take pride in his home.

Nearly all of the wage-earning boys and girls of our Orphanage have savings bank accounts. A list of articles of clothing stands over against the children's wage scale and increases proportionately with it; that is, the higher the child's monthly wage the greater the number of articles of clothing he must provide for himself. All money earned is paid over to the child at the close of each month. Each child earning a dollar a month or more is required to keep an itemized account of the expenditure of his money and to submit the same for inspection at the close of each month. Children's work should not only have educative worth—but economic value as well.

In the time limit assigned us it is impossible to present an adequate discussion of the institution school beyond the statement of a few fundamental principles. First, the school should be the intellectual clearing house of all the interests and industries of the place. Its curriculum should round up the varied life of the institution in arithmetical problems, in English composition, in

drawing and color work, in manual training, in dress making, in nature study, etc.

The function of the institution school is to fuse into educative material and purpose the entire experience of the child outside of the classroom. The products of the shop and garden, the poultry yard and field, the kitchen and sewing room, should all find a place in the curriculum and should receive a schoolroom treatment. In this way only will much of the school work have real meaning to the child. Experience should interpret the formal training of the school and the school should classify and conventionalize experience. Thus school work, like play, industry, and economic training, will interpret life and lead into life.

In considering the problem of moral and religious training we should bear in mind that there are two ways of accomplishing results in institutions. One by rules and regulations, physical or environmental restraints, etc.; the other by wholesome incentives, by force of personality and example, awakening an interest in the results aimed for, etc. The former method works from without. It is cold, impersonal, mechanical, compulsory, formal, and is applied en masse. The latter works from within. It is warm, personal, vital, expressive and individually initiative. Under the former method discipline, punishment, deprivation, etc., function in a large way. By the latter method—the method of inner spontaneity or necessity—occupation and behavior, employment and purpose go hand in hand; authority and punishment function but slightly.

Moral and religious training like play, industry, the economic interest and the school curriculum should function in the daily life of the child. To receive religious and moral instruction without following up the lessons to their practical application in the everyday life and experience of the child is "Like unto a man beholding his natural face in a glass, for he beholdeth himself and goeth his way and straightway forgetteth what manner of man he was." Honesty, industry, economy, protection of property, the square deal, fair play, kindness, helpfulness, mutual service, faith in God and the consciousness of Divine support, guidance and protection, must function in the daily life of the child if they are to have any significance whatever beyond mere form and an empty, passive, intellectual assent. Thus, in moral and religious instruction as everywhere else in the training of the child, our test question is—Does it interpret life and lead into life?

WHAT DO YOU KNOW OF THE CHILDREN AFTER THEY LEAVE YOUR HOME OR INSTITUTION? DO YOU SUPERVISE THEM?

MRS. GLENDOWER EVANS, BOSTON.

I am taking this topic broadly, raising the general question how much institutions or placing-out agencies know of the outcome, for the children, of their work. How far do such agencies keep track of their children? What pains do they take to befriend them when they go out into the great unfriendly world? What evidence have they that the children who year by year pass out of their care, are so circumstanced as to have any kind of a fair chance in life? And in default of such knowledge, what guarantee is there that the intervention of the Society has been of permanent benefit to the children?

Before I go further, let me define the term results and after-care, which I shall use throughout this paper. I do not attempt an inquiry as to results after the care of the Society has ceased. I mean results after the child has gone out into the world and has lived there a sufficient length of time to make it reasonable to talk of after-care and of results at all. Further, the term, as I think it should be used, would apply equally to children sent out from an institution to their former homes or to other places, and to children placed out as soon as they come into the care of the Society—after-care in this case meaning care for a reasonable length of time in the home in which the Placing-out Society had located them. What is a reasonable length of time during which the after-care should continue, and under what circumstances it is safe and proper to count a child no longer in need of such after-care, are the questions before the Conference at this session. It is needless to say that upon these questions a great diversity of practice obtains in the charitable world.

Let me here remind you that institution children, of all others, are in need of a helping hand when they go back into the world. For the institution has offered immunity to the very dangers which are sure to beset the child outside its door. In the institution conditions were arranged to suit the child. In the world the child must adapt itself to conditions in no way devised for its benefit. It must stand alone, where in the institution it is always made

one of a group. It must judge for itself, where, in the institution, it had only to obey. It belongs now to a world which must earn its bread or go hungry, and so on through a long chapter. Moreover, when the child is sent out by the institution, it either goes back to a home once broken by some sort of a tragedy—too often by the tragedy of sin—or it goes to some relative with whom it has never lived before, or else it is placed out, as the term runs, in the hope that this household of a stranger will become for it a true home. However, then, the child may be reinstated in the community it is always under somewhat experimental conditions, and the need of supervision or after-care is so manifest that it seems strange it need be dwelt upon at all.

But it does need to be dwelt upon. As proof let me tell what occurred at the State Conference in Massachusetts last year, when the Superintendent of an Institution got up and said that in his view, institution children were like pins. Millions of new pins are manufactured daily to take the place of those which disappear. Where do pins go? What happens to them? As well attempt to answer that question as to follow institution children when they go back into the world. This unvarnished confession raised a laugh, but it was not meant for a joke, and it is to be feared that many another superintendent, if equally frank, would have to make a similar confession.

With a view to bringing the Child Helping Societies of Massachusetts more fully to face their responsibilities, the Massachusetts State Conference on Charities a year ago sent out a circular to sixty-three societies asking whether they attempted after-care of their children, and what they could tell of their results. Of these sixty-three societies seventeen made no response, forty-six responded with a report or letter or both. Examination of these forty-six responses showed nine societies which made no claim to, in any way, follow the children when they left the institution, against thirty-seven which acknowledged a responsibility for the children they had once had in charge. The nine societies, which confined their efforts within the walls of the institution, had accommodations for 1,823 inmates, and six of these societies, which spent an aggregate of $83,108.33 collected from the charitable public, printed no report rendering an account of their stewardship.

Subtracting the seventeen societies which failed to reply to the circular, and the nine which made no claim to providing after-care,

we find thirty-seven societies which profess to give after-care to their children; but out of these there were twenty-one whose published reports gave no evidence that they in any way lived up to their claim. For instance, one report stated incidentally that its work was confined to children between the ages of 5 and 14, and "grateful acknowledgments" in after years are referred to as evidence that their labors have not been in vain. Another report speaks of two former inmates occupying positions of responsibility, and of one who was recently placed and doing well; but not one other word is found in a report of 56 pages to indicate that the young girls who leave their institution do not cease to exist when they cross its threshold. Another report comments: "Those who have gone out from our home often need advice and help." Still another report refers to the "problem" of finding reliable families in which to place their children, but no hint is given in any of the reports of this group of a systematic effort to follow up their children; and except for a few phrases such as are quoted above, the reports are absolutely silent as to the whole problem of after-care. The assumption of several that the favorable cases incidentally heard from may be taken as samples of the whole, shows a naive disregard of the fact that those who fall into disgrace will be apt to keep out of the way. While the assumption that growing boys and girls who need help in a critical hour can be relied upon to seek it, argues a pitiable ignorance of efficient placing out work.

Out of the whole group of 63 societies appealed to, it turned out that there were only 13 whose reports set forth a system of after-care as an integral feature of their work, or which gave the numbers under supervision, the methods employed, etc.

If some are inclined to protest that reports are mere red tape, and that societies doing capital work very often take little time in telling about it, I would answer that every one, in making a report, writes down what is thought important. And if pages are devoted to obituary notices, to the virtues of a superintendent, or to the descriptions of a festival, and other pages to acts of incorporation, by-laws, or the constitution, while not a single line is given to the dealings of the institution with the child or to their after lives, it is fair, I think, to infer that the individual is lost sight of in the machinery, and that, when the children go out into the dangerous world, no helping hand is reached out to them by the institution masquerading under the name of a home.

Indeed it is useless to deny that after-care, while of the first importance, is a duty too often overlooked. And it is obvious that a call from the charitable public for a statement of results, may do something to bring the shortcomings of the institution to the consciences of managers who certainly desire to do well by their children, and who fail, when they do fail, by inadvertence and not by will.

In my judgment there is a most specific value in a systematic study of results if undertaken in a spirit of scientific criticism and to the end of discerning the weak, as well as the strong points, in one's work. In the lack of systematic analysis, it is astonishing how superficial and misleading one's estimates of one's methods may be—how lessons of experience may be neglected and statements false in fact because partial, may be relied upon and published to the world.

As an illustration of this danger, let me tell you of my own experience in connection with an institution whose methods of after-care were revolutionized by figures dug out with much trouble in response to a call for results by the committee in charge of the Exhibit on Charities for the World's Fair in 1893. Not long before that date, I had been told by our state visitor that some 90 odd Lyman School boys just visited were almost every one of them doing well, and without a shadow of misgiving I accepted the statement and drew the not unnatural inference that the system of after-care for Lyman School boys was first class. But the visitor had not told me, indeed he probably did not realize himself, that boys who had turned tramps, or gotten to prison, or even had been returned to the Lyman School, he had dropped from his visiting list, and that thus our failures had been silently subtracted when he came to sum up results.

How different, alas, was the story when the group who had passed out of care, by coming of age, within the year, was classified, the name of not a single boy being allowed to drop from the list, with the result that there were only 42 per cent. known to be honestly self-supporting against 35 per cent. known to have been in prison during some part of their minority still in our care, and 23 per cent. of whom nothing at all was known.

That was in 1893. And you may well believe that the complacency of the trustees was rudely shaken. But a far more efficient system of after-care was the result; and last year, for a similar

group of boys coming of age within the year, analysis showed: 63 per cent. doing well, 7 per cent. doing badly, 11 per cent. having been in penal institutions at some time during their minority, 8 per cent. left the state, 11 per cent. lost track of.

Here, reduced to tangible form, we find over 20 per cent. out of a given group of boys, transformed from law-breakers into decent citizens to demonstrate the benefit of scrutiny and analysis of one's own work. I can not doubt that a similar searching of results would be equally disquieting and equally valuable to other institutions now resting secure as to the adequacy of their ways.

With a view to developing a more intelligent demand upon themselves among institutions, a group of the more progressive Child Helping Societies in Massachusetts has agreed upon a certain statistical form to be used in their annual reports, and they plan to come together in occasional conferences to compare methods and discuss results. The statistical form adopted will be persistently circulated among the other Child Helping Agencies, and as occasion offers the benefits of after-care and classified results will be set forth. Thus it is hoped that a better public opinion among institutions will gradually come to prevail. If the conscience of the community now demands that strict account shall be rendered of financial interests accepted under trust, shall not equally strict account be demanded from those who accept the care of other peoples' children and appeal to the charitable public to be intrusted with money to defray the bill.

THE PLAYGROUND.

HENRY S. CURTIS, SECRETARY OF THE PLAYGROUND ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, WASHINGTON, D. C.

People often speak of the playground movement as though it were a fad, an excrescence of American civilization which had arisen in a night and would disappear as it had come. Only the students of the movement realize how universal it has been or how inevitably it has resulted from the whole trend of modern thought and study.

It is perhaps scarcely accurate to speak of the beginning of a movement which is the outcome of all the forces of modern life and for which a century of study and investigation has been preparing,

or, to speak of any country as the source of a movement which is the product of the social and intellectual activities of all countries alike. However, so far as we can speak of a beginning, we may say it begins in the sand gardens of Berlin, and the date is 1885.

The Central Games Committee of Germany was organized in 1891, and almost immediately a special commission was sent to England to observe and report on the games in the English public schools. The report of this commission was officially circulated throughout the empire, and resulted in a great increase of interest. English cricket and foot-ball teams were asked to tour Germany and play matched games in the different cities. The annual meetings of the Central Games Committee aroused great interest through their discussions and exhibitions, and soon a curriculum, consisting of about seventy games for boys and seventy games for girls, was introduced into the schools as a part of the regular work, thus continuing the method of the kindergarten up through the elementary schools. This curriculum has now been adopted by a large part of the German schools. Many of them are also requiring a minimum playground space amounting to 25 or 30 square feet for each child in the school.

In England football and cricket have been compulsory in the preparatory schools for many years. In the statistics which were gathered from "Studies on Educational Subjects for Great Britain" it was shown that in the 320 preparatory schools where the boys are only from 9 to 13 years of age there is an average requirement of about fifteen hours a week devoted to these games. In the public schools, such as Eton, Harrow and Rugby, football and cricket are compulsory upon the lower classmen, though the enforcement of this rule is usually left to the boys in the upper classes. Still, the younger fellows are likely to be caned at Rugby if they absent themselves from football practice. In the high schools for girls, which correspond in general to Eton and Rugby, games which include cricket, hockey, golf and tennis are compulsory for about eighteen hours a week. In the preparatory schools the masters are practically required to devote two hours a day to games with the children on the field. These English masters are undoubtedly the best play leaders to be found any where, and these playgrounds to my mind the most successful playgrounds in the world. In the public schools the masters still take part in the games for the boys, but to not so great an extent as in the prepara-

tory schools. The mistresses all take active part in the games in the girls' schools. In America we feel that the playground is primarily for the children of the poor. In England it is primarily for the sons and daughters of gentlemen, though there are also in all of the large cities of England and Scotland playgrounds for poor children which consist of small spaces with much apparatus, mostly swings and see-saws in charge of a caretaker.

In America the movement is now twenty-one years old, as it begins properly in the sand gardens of Boston in 1886, though it did not take strong hold in this country until more than ten years later. Now nearly every city of 100,000 inhabitants in the North and many with only 25,000 or 50,000 maintain a system of public playgrounds. New York has expended to date about $15,000,000 in this work, and Chicago has used $10,000,000 in the last three years. There is a decided tendency also at present to put play into the public schools as a part of the course. In many of our large private schools, such as Groton, Lawrenceville and St. Marks, which are founded on the plan of the English public schools, play is a part of the regular course. Boston has recently voted to put all the park playgrounds under the direction of the school committee and has voted $50,000 to provide for the supervision of the play of the children. Rochester has taken similar action in the last two months. The Board of Health of Boston has recently recommended to the Board of Education that one hour should be taken from the school day in the primary schools and devoted to play under the direction of the teachers. New York provides 45 minutes a day for directed play in her primary schools. President Roosevelt says in his letter to the Washington Playground Association, "I hope that soon all of our public schools will provide in connection with the school buildings and during school hours, the place and time for the recreation as well as study of the children." I regard this as a very hopeful tendency, as abundant experience demonstrates that the primary children will get along as fast in school with a four hour scholastic day as they will with a five hour day.

If we turn from the consideration of the rapid development of this movement to seek for the causes from which it has sprung, we find them in two main sources; one a more careful study and better understanding of children, the other in a new civic spirit, a new sense of responsibility of man for his brother, and of the strong for the weak.

In whichever way we turn the light of investigation upon the child, whether we study his physical development, his bodily health, his mental and social interests, or moral nature, we come upon play as fundamental in all.

One of the ideas of the newer education is that the preservation and development of robust health should be the first consideration of any system of education. Simultaneously with this new appreciation of health for all positions in life has come the new realization that the health of all people and especially children is largely dependent upon life in the open air. The study of tuberculosis has shown us that there is no specific for the disease, that the only cure is plenty of fresh air and sunshine. The Tuberculosis Congresses in Germany have resulted in the founding of hundreds of playgrounds throughout the empire. Another disease to which children are especially liable is chorea. All doctors are agreed that one of the chief exciting causes of this disease is a confined life within doors. The best preventive is plenty of exercise in the open air. Even for the near-sightedness to which our school children are so subject, and which is caused by the strain of constant near accommodation of the eyes, play in the open, which allows the eye axes to become parallel, furnishes the surest relief. Not only does abundant play in the open air furnish the best specific against infection, but it gives the body an abounding vitality and resistance which renders harmless many otherwise noxious germs.

Forty years ago the physical development of children was gained largely from the work in which they participated. It was the practice for the boy to help his father. This work has almost entirely disappeared. Our child labor laws forbid the regular employment of children before they are fourteen years of age, thus this great source of physical development on which the race and the children of all previous generations have become strong has disappeared.

There is a superstition amongst many people that our new system of physical training in the schools has taken its place, and that we are now making our children strong by systematic exercise. There is scarcely a school system in the country which requires of a growing boy or girl more than two hours a week of physical training, whilst the requirement of every growing boy or girl is at least two hours a day, thus the physical training given in any of our school systems by systematic exercise is scarcely more than an incident in the physical development of the children. A few years ago there were nearly always near by open fields that could

be wandered over, streams to swim and fish in, and woods in which to explore and hunt. With the rapid development of the city these facilities for exploration and adventure have become too distant for most city boys. By the method of difference we seem to have found the other means of physical training, deficient at present, and to have left only play to depend on, and too often only the play impulse, with no adequate or suitable place for its expression.

However, the type of playground which is generally thought of when the word is mentioned is the vacation playground, and this has arisen primarily from social rather than physical or hygienic reasons. The lovers of children have beheld them during the long summer months turned loose upon the hot, dusty and dangerous streets of our great cities, with nothing to do. They have seen the civilization of the school year rub off in the lawlessness of the summer time, and the children return to school again in the fall in a primitive state of barbarism. They have seen in the streets, with their various brawls and opportunities for vice and lawlessness, a school of crime. They have seen that anything that the child cared to do in the street was an obstruction to traffic, a constant annoyance to adjacent business and passers by, and that, as the game was nearly always against the law, the child was made a law breaker by gratifying the most fundamental impulse of his nature. They have seen that the play of the children on the street was wrecking the nervous systems of the whole community; first, of the children themselves on account of the noise, the heat, and the constant danger of being run over; secondly, of all the business people of the neighborhood who were annoyed by missiles, broken windows, stolen fruit and other troubles incident to boyish play and mischief; thirdly, of the drivers of every manner of vehicle who were constantly startled by the appearance of playing children in front of their cars or wagons; and lastly and chiefly, of the parents at home who were worrying about the physical and moral welfare of their children. They have seen the number of accidents to children and arrests of children rise 50 per cent. as soon as the schools close for the summer, and they have found a nearly equal falling off as soon as playgrounds were opened and the children were taken from the streets. This social motive has probably been the chief source of the playground movement in the great cities of America.

These considerations, however, apply primarily to the summer time, and the ones to which I wish to give chief emphasis are equally

urgent at all times. We are coming to see how superficial on the whole is the culture represented by the old time school; how little the child's success or happiness are dependent upon his knowledge of Latin or algebra or any of the other scholastic studies. His relations with his fellows are to occupy a much larger place in his after life. His ability to understand others, and co-operate with them or compete against them, will have far more to do with his after success and happiness than will his merely scholastic education. We have no social education at present which is formal or planned, but the chief social training which our children get comes from their play. The only child sits apart, is hard to get acquainted with and diffident. Under the strict rules of the class-room city children often go to the same room and to the same teachers for nearly a year and remain strangers to each other. It is in the intimacy of play that the friendships of childhood are formed, and the child who learns to co-operate or compete acceptably in the games of childhood is generally a good fellow afterwards.

At first glance play does not appeal to the casual observer as having any considerable intellectual value. Still the old adage says, "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy," and the general consensus of opinion is that the adage is true. We have the supplementary knowledge that almost the only way to arouse the intelligence of many rather stupid children is to put them into exciting games. We know both by observation and experiment that a boy can run faster in playing tag than he can on going on an errand, that he will endure an amount of physical exertion in his play which would prostrate him in the form of work. If we look for the causes of this phenomenon we find that all play activities are survivals of much older activities of the race to which the nervous system has been adapted during countless centuries of development and consequently that it responds to this stimulus in a way that it responds to no other. It is not that the boy is less willing to go on the errand than he is to play, it is not possible for him to run as fast in the one case as in the other. Probably the greatest incentive to effort that ever comes to the life of any boy is when he represents his school or club in a match game with some other school or club. His little world is looking on. A brilliant play, a long hit, means fame to him, the opposite means disgrace. Never at any other time in his life will there be so much to win or lose in so short a time.

The relation of play to moral education is well understood by the thoughtful. Every one sees that children form their habits of courtesy, of kindness, of truthfulness and honesty mostly in play, and a world of precept has little influence in their actions where habits are formed wrong. This is why the play leader is such an important factor in the playground, and why the kindergarten is so great a moral force. The playground also puts real and healthful interest in place of vicious ones, keeps the child away from temptation, by keeping him out of the livery stable and back alley, by giving him a place where he can play without breaking the law. It is generally conceded that the athletic field is for the youth the most successful rival of the saloon and the brothel.

It is said that the only thing in life with reference to which the question "why" is absurd, is pleasure. Pleasure is its own reward. We do not ask "Why enjoy ourselves?" We do not care for a reason. To the child, and to the adult, too, for that matter, the words "pleasure" and "play" are almost synonymous. The man may make play of his work, and alas! for him in whose work is no play. He is little better than a galley slave. This is the saddest thing in the labor situation to-day. Some people go through life with the play spirit manifest in their voices, in their attitude, even in their walk. They exhale a spirit of elasticity and life and joyousness which makes their presence a delight. It is the loss of this play spirit which makes child labor such a dreadful curse. Play is our education in the spirit of joyousness, but it has much to do, not merely with the joyousness of childhood, but with the joyousness and optimism of all after life.

If play is really so fundamental as our consideration thus far has led us to suppose, it is a plain inference that playgrounds should be provided for all children at the expense of the city, and in such locations as to be accessible to every child; that is, there should be a playground space for every child as much as there should be a seat in the school, and, playgrounds must be regularly distributed over our cities within walking distance of the children. For a school playground, the London requirement is that there must be thirty square feet of playground for each child connected with the school. This requirement has also been adopted by the Board of Education of Washington This means approximately an acre of playground for each thousand children, surely not an excessive amount. It takes an acre of ground for 150 chickens.

All students of play discover in the child three play periods, first, the dramatic period, lasting from birth until about six; second, a period which Mr. Lee calls "The Big Ingin" age, which is competitive and assertive in its nature, running from about six years to twelve or thirteen; and third, the co-operative period, which he calls the period of loyalty, beginning at about puberty These three periods require three different types of playgrounds, which are found in a more or less developed state in most of our great cities, though two of the types are often combined The playground for the small children need not be very large and may well be the yard of the house, or the yard of the school. The second type of playground must be large enough for some racing and more vigorous games than are usually possible in the school playground It corresponds in general with what is known as the municipal playground; the third type is the athletic field and must be of considerable size in order to accommodate games of football, base ball, etc. It is usually located in the parks.

It may be late to propound here the question, "What is a playground?" but there are three current conceptions on the subject. One of these is, a playground is a place to play; it is an open space or athletic field where the children can go, but experience shows that such a field undirected is apt to get into the hands of a gang and is little used except by young men who might better be doing something else. A second conception is that a playground is an available space filled with apparatus such as swings, see-saws, etc., in charge of a caretaker, an equally inadequate idea, because it fails to secure the attendance of the children, or any of the higher results of playground administration. A third conception places the chief emphasis upon the play leader. A kindergarten consists chiefly of a kindergartener, even though some space and toys are necessary; so a playground consists chiefly of a play leader. This idea would doubtless seem absurd to many, but I believe it is the most nearly correct of the three. However, the really successful playground must have these three elements at their best: a good-sized space for games, some apparatus which need not be elaborate, and a play leader. Without the play leader of a high personal type the playground can never be more than second class. It is poorly attended and trends mostly to disorder and noise. With a good leader the attendance will be trebled and it becomes a school of all the civic virtues. I find in our playgrounds in Washington that the

difference in attendance under a good play leader and a poor one is fully half the number. I have one school playground at which there is a maximum attendance of 400, with one teacher, and of 200 with another. There is about $50.00 worth of apparatus in the yard and the attendance without any play leader at all would not exceed 50 or 100 at the outside.

There are several tendencies which are manifest in the development of the present year One is the tendency for the smaller cities to take over the playgrounds and run them as a municipal undertaking, the same as the larger cities have been doing for some time. The second is the unquestionable tendency toward making the playgrounds a part of the educational system; the third is an attempt to deal with the problem of playgrounds for a city comprehensively, something as we have been doing with our schools. Washington, Rochester and Newark have drawn up playground plans for the city during the past year, and the plan of Washington has been adopted by both the commissioners and the Board of Education. The State Legislature of New Jersey during its last session appointed a body of three commissioners for each city of New Jersey to select sites for playgrounds, to acquire the ground, and maintain the playgrounds thereon as fast as the appropriations can be secured therefor.

In conclusion, let me urge that the members of this conference who are interested in playgrounds stop off at Chicago on their return home, if they go that way, and attend the playground convention there on the 20th, 21st and 22d of this month. In Chicago you will see not only the latest form of playground construction that is to be found anywhere, but also exhibitions of games adapted to playground uses, and will hear various phases of the subject discussed by speakers who are authorities on the topics assigned them.

THE VALUE OF THE FRESH AIR MOVEMENT.

MRS. H. INGRAM, SUPERINTENDENT OF RELIEF OF THE N. Y. ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR.

Of all the generous gifts of Nature to mankind none come with greater abundance, with less partiality, with more power for good, than those of fresh air and sunlight. And how has civilization, with its boast of progress, received these gifts? Civilization in great cities has refused them, has warded them off like enemies, has

built against them tall and strong barricades, has raised chimneys over perpetual fires whose smoke takes the freshness from the air and darkens the sunlight. The value of the fresh air movement lies in restoring to some extent and for some period of time these gifts of Nature and their benefits which civilization has done its most to take away.

From a considerable correspondence on the subject, it is gathered that the cities and towns in the western half of our country are far more fortunate than those in the East in their retention of a healthful sun-lighted atmosphere, although very large cities in all locations admit the undesirable conditions of their poorer quarters and the dangers that attend close, crowded dwellings, tall tenements and narrow alleys. One western correspondent writes: "We have no slums." Several others say: "We have not as yet felt the need of fresh air work" From Seattle we hear that "less than an hour's walk will take one into cool country or forest." From Lincoln, Nebraska: "No fresh air work done here and none needed. Plenty of fresh air for all right in the city." From South Dakota: "Where every man, woman and child has a square mile of the most vigorous ozone to be found on the continent, the question of fresh air for the people is unknown."

Fortunate are those western cities which still have the opportunity of keeping themselves free from the taint of many eastern cities, a slum district of tenements. And fortunate are the towns everywhere in which that most important part of the fresh air movement, fresh air work *at home,* has provided model tenements and sanitary conditions. No out-of-town trips, of short or long duration, can make up for the lack of these conditions, which should be the every-day right of every human being.

By the familiar law of compensation, however, most eastern cities have suburbs of country and seashore easily adaptable for the summer outings so greatly needed by the tenement dwellers. Generally speaking, the farm in the East is accessible, attractive, roomy and comfortable, and the farmer's family hospitable. The western farm means a ruder house, fewer conveniences, long distances and great expanses of land.

It is to be regretted that on a subject which has assumed such importance and interest as the fresh air movement, so little really definite and complete information is obtainable. Replies to inquiries are courteous and cordial, but much of the information even in printed reports is general and descriptive, rather than exact.

The constantly growing interest in fresh air for the people would indicate either the great importance of the subject, or the existence of a "fad" which has the power to engage alike government official, church and social worker, physician, nurse, teacher, parent, contributor and beneficiary. Many schools, churches, settlements and day nurseries conduct summer work out-of-town; hospitals and city institutions have their country branches, Sunday schools their excursions, clubs and associations their "vacation departments," convalescent homes are growing in number, and fresh air seasons are growing in length. By far the larger part of the work, probably 75 or 80 per cent., is done for children, and with good reason. The woes of children are especially pathetic, the work for them fundamental, far-reaching and hopeful, their progress a sure way to the advance of the people. Statistics of morality in cities show that infants succumb quickly to diseases caused or intensified by unhealthy conditions, and especially by unhealthy *summer* conditions. The children of the poor, the sick of the slums and tenement districts, swell these statistics every summer. Here are the small dark bedrooms, the damp, unwholesome basements, the tall, overcrowded houses, the narrow streets, the scorching pavements, the airless atmosphere. Here live the fathers whose work is never steady, whose wages are never large; here the mothers overburdened with care, with drudgery and discouragement; here the children whose playground is the street, whose summer resort is the roof or fire-escape; here the babies whose pale little faces are old before they are young. Physicians who work through the hot weather in a crowded city say that the fresh air movement is well called the "Life-Saving Campaign," with its threefold office, preventive, remedial and restorative, and its threefold result, health, rest and pleasure. How much can be done in the city itself to relieve the evils of congestion has been shown in Mr. Curtis's paper. The parks, playgrounds, street-car rides, roof-gardens, recreation piers, sand piles and school-gardens stand for healthy exercise and the interfusion of air and sunshine with the child's life, and are in many ways more important than the distant outing which is generally in mind when one speaks of fresh air work. Fresh air work costs in time, money and effort, but sickness, debility and death cost more. It is an unquestioned fact that the "summer illnesses" are almost unknown in the uncongested country and seashore districts; it is practically demonstrable that early measures towards their prevention are attended with suc-

cess, even in crowded districts, and that these measures are pure air and sunshine, together with the other elements closely allied to fresh air work, cleanliness, wholesome food, exercise and rest. Huxley makes this more than a physical issue when he writes: "The health of the mental and bodily functions, the spirit, temper, disposition, the correctness of the judgment and brilliancy of the imagination, depend directly upon pure air." It is more than a fad—more than a luxury—it is health and life. As little as we would expect a plant to thrive in a closed, dark room, so little may we expect a child to thrive without abundant air and light.

The preventive element of the work is realized by those agencies which have extended their outing season so that they give their earliest invitations in May and June, before the real summer heat. The early fresh air guest, child or adult, gains the vitality which will in a large proportion of cases meet the attack of later summer heat with endurance. Preventive fresh air work includes many of those outings called "pleasure trips," and effectually conducted, goes far towards reducing the demands upon the other offices of the fresh air movement, those which may be called the hospital and convalescent functions, as they provide for the sick, disabled and convalescent. The results of disease are often more difficult to overcome than the disease itself, and the expensive care which illness and convalesence require might often by a little foresight be exchanged for a simple bill for country board. A physician writes: "This woman is near the breaking-down point. Can you send her away early? If she can have three weeks in the country she will probably come home well." A nurse sends the mother of twin babies with a note: "Will you help these babies to get through the summer without suffering, by sending them away early? They live in such a crowded home." Another says: "This patient is as well as my treatment can make her, but she needs a change of air to complete the cure." Another: "This young girl has worked twelve months without a vacation. She needs to get away."

In a large city distress must be met with ready remedy and threatening evils demand wise preventive measures. Is any one skeptical regarding the advantages of a vacation for either rich or poor? The benefits of a change of air? The power of improved conditions to bring about improved results?

So much for the value of the movement from the standpoint of removal from bad conditions. The value measured in units of im-

provement must depend on wise judgment in many directions. The location of the fresh air resort is important. Where one is fortunate enough to have the planning of his own outing every summer, he selects the bracing mountain air, the quiet, restful country or the tonic seashore, as choice or his physician may suggest, and then considers carefully the house and all its accommodations. For the less prominent of the city's citizens, the greatest good will be accomplished by the same exercise of careful thought in the matters of suitable location, drainage and good water. Local conditions, demands and resources will generally control the form of entertainment given. The three well-known plans are (1) boarding-places for individuals, families and small groups, including the popular "country week" invitation; (2) homes or grouped cottages, where large numbers of children or adults are accommodated, and (3) for boys and men the summer camp or real open-air tent life. The day excursion to country or seashore is a pleasant anticipation, a welcome reality and a happy memory to hundreds of thousands of children and parents every summer. Many communities maintain vacation societies and outing clubs for working girls, women and men, which furnish summer board at the exact cost of living or at a nominal small sum. Many individuals and families are provided with free transportation to relatives or friends in the country who can give them an invitation but not a railroad ticket. Transportation companies take a share in the responsibility and are generous in their reduction of rates for fresh air work.

Much of the desired benefit will depend upon the methods employed in conducting the work In this as in many other things, "there is nothing so practical as the ideal, nor so ideal as the practical." Plan for as long a fresh air season as possible, beginning at the earliest convenient date, but before that date have every detail of management arranged with a view to unhesitating promptness throughout the season. Children become sick in an hour, tired working girls and women are "laid off" suddenly and tell you "this is my only week of vacation;" word will come from your place of outing that "there will be four vacancies tomorrow." It is important and it is economical to fill every bed, every room, every party, every moment. Know what you are going to do. "It is not the man who reaches the corner first who wins, but the man who knows exactly what he is going to do when he reaches

the corner.'' Know what you are going to do with the sick, with the suspected contagious disease, with those who fail to accept the invitation without good reason, with those who apply but are not eligible for your particular work—have a list of places for those who say they can ''pay a little, but can't find a cheap place.'' If your work is general and not limited to some special group, let this be known by notifying those who are in closest touch with the class you wish to reach, the hospitals or dispensaries, the schools or missions, the settlements or day nurseries, the shops or factories. It is generally admitted that in this work, as in other philanthropy, a certain amount of investigation is desirable. There is perhaps little question here of ''worthy'' or ''unworthy,'' the two important points being, ''Can the physical condition be benefited?'' and ''Is the applicant too poor to provide for herself or her children?'' But if the preference is to be given to the neediest, the most overworked or the most delicate, if preventive cases are to be taken at the right moment, if your money is to accomplish the utmost good, then must some organized inquiry and investigation answer these questions. Direct the invited guests simply and clearly regarding the preparation for the outing, the matter of cleanliness, of clothing, the exact time and place of starting. Arrange for the necessary medical inspection. Have a definite understanding regarding transportation facilities and charges, and for large parties a reliable transportation agent. Have the length of stay elastic, governed by the need of the individual rather than the desire to swell numbers. The average stay given by all organizations whose reports show this item, is nine days, and many of the reports, while speaking of the marked improvement effected by the nine days, express a wish that the stay might be longer and the improvement proportionately greater.

It seems hardly necessary to speak of the arrangements at the place of outing, so obvious is their value in the whole scheme—the simple attractive exterior and interior of home, cottage or camp; ample ventilation, care of sleeping quarters, provision of wholesome food and regular meals, medical and nurse's attendance within easy reach, competent supervision of the household, day and night. A word may here be said in favor of paid trained workers, especially at the *head* of the city department and the country home, although both departments offer opportunity for some volunteer work. Physicians' and nurses' services are frequently vol-

unteered and excellent service rendered. Plan definitely with your workers those influences which we may call the educational part of the fresh air work. Two weeks or less may seem a short time in which to attempt any great results along educational lines, but mothers will watch with interest the skilled attention given to their little ones, the preparation of food in the diet kitchen, the orderly serving of meals; they will listen with interest to informal talks about bathing, ventilation, the feeding of infants, the preparation of food. Children will quickly gather around a playmistress who keeps them busy and happy while she tells them about the trees and the flowers, the shells and the waves; they may, even in nine days, have more than nine lessons in good habits and manners. In this wide opportunity for a broadening, uplifting influence, lies one of the great advantages of the congregate system of fresh air outings over the individual family group in a small boarding place. It should not be hard to see the advantages of taking the mother with her children, and of throwing around them together that influence and atmosphere which make for physical, mental and moral improvement. There is seldom separation without anxiety; there is happiness in the "going away together," and happiness is an important factor in fresh air improvement. Have a clear, accurate, simple system of records, not only for current use and convenience, but because recorded experience and reliable statistics are always valuable in extending your own work, in starting new centers, in holding public interest and in raising contributions. Advertising in various forms meets with a generous response when fresh air work is the subject, but nothing makes a better appeal than the simply stated story of what you have done, taken from explicit records and told in terms of need, treatment and result. Funds contributed in answer to such appeals are a gilt-edged investment, paying liberal interest and doubling capital in health and happiness.

The cost of health and happiness thus procured must necessarily vary in different localities and under different conditions. Where hospital and convalescent care are included in the fresh air outing, the expense is often multiplied—where parties are taken in large groups, the per capita cost is very greatly reduced. Differences also in the method of calculation add to the difficulty in obtaining comparative statements. Some estimates are based upon a calculation of running expenses only; others include construction and

repairs, some include salaries and some omit them. The figures therefore taken from printed reports vary widely. The cost of day excursions range from a per capita minimum of 7 cents to a maximum of 90 cents; the expense of a week's outing from a per capita minimum of $2 to a maximum of $7. To obtain statements regarding *results,* in terms that would serve for purposes of comparison, is still more difficult. That the results are almost universally satisfactory seems unquestionable. Correspondents write: "All our people come home well." "Not a case of serious illness during the season." "Sick guests improve rapidly." "All the appetites increase." "I wish you could see the bright eyes and rosy cheeks." "The tired women are soon playing games like the children." "The old women lose their rheumatism and forget to complain."

One agency in New York, during the summer of 1906, made a physical examination, including weight and measurement of growing children before their nine days' outing, and again on their return. Normal children in the city gain little or nothing during the hot weather, but of 664 children thus weighed on admission and discharge, in spite of their daily sea bath and vigorous exercise, 77 per cent. gained from ¼ ounce to 4 pounds 8 ounces—an average of 1 pound 12 ounces for each child in an outing of nine days. During the same year in the same city, 27,000 deaths occurred from preventable diseases. May we not feel sure that many of these diseases and deaths might have been saved by increased fresh air facilities?

Several correspondents have suggested questions for consideration. Some have already been answered and others demand and deserve longer discussion than is convenient at this time:

Is greater co-operation among existing agencies desirable? Yes.

How can it be secured? By more frequent conferences and by a system of central registration.

Is duplication harmful? The greatest harm probably lies in the fact that duplication of outings in one case prevents any outing at all in some other case; and in the inducement to deceit on the part of the beneficiary.

Could we not have a systematic physical examination of each child? This is positively advisable and the examination should be followed up by directions regarding any necessary treatment and visitation later, to ascertain if directions have been followed.

Is there enough fresh air provision for men and boys? No, this is a need which deserves to be emphasized. The men and older boys, the natural bread-winners of the family, fail too often to recover health and strength after illness or accident, and often return to work only to break down again and again.

How can fresh air work in summer improve winter conditions? By adding to health, strength, energy and working capacity. By preventing weakness or illness that would cause disability and loss of income. By such influence and instruction as can be given and received during a period of quiet, restful leisure. By visitation after the return home, to follow up summer suggestions and to "keep in touch."

The growth of fresh air work in America has been a rapid growth, keeping pace with the increase in city population. Its value has been in general undoubted, and sentiment has, so far, done much towards making for it that reputation which should now be built upon the genuineness of its necessity and the efficiency of its methods and results. Let every leader in the fresh air movement so conduct his own work, let every Conference so emphasize the value of the work, as to become an inspiration in the future of this movement which has been called "the most beautiful and most effective form of modern philanthropy."

DISCUSSION ON PLAY GROUNDS AND FRESH AIR MOVEMENT.

GRAHAM TAYLOR—It is certainly a way-mark of human progress that the problem of the people's play has become an industrial problem, a civic problem and a religious problem. It involves the problem of industrial efficiency which American manufacturers are facing. More and more they are realizing that they must invest brains and capital in the human elements of their plants, as well as in machinery and in buildings. The leisure problem is looming as large upon the industrial conscience as is the labor problem itself. And well it may, for it is not the least of the ways of increasing industrial efficiency. People are made and unmade quite as much, I find, by what they do for or against themselves in their leisure time, over which they have their own command, as by anything that is done against them by others when they are at work.

The problem of play is a civic problem. And it is being so recognized, not only by the extension of municipal park areas, but also by the erection of recreation centers and play grounds as one of the vital functions of a municipality. When one once gets just a little accustomed to the human values of that function of the city one can not help being amused at any challenge of it. In speaking of Chicago's recreation centers in another city

not long ago, I was interrupted by a physician who asked me who paid for these centers, which cost for the buildings alone in twelve of our parks in one district from $50,000 to $150,000. "Why, of course," I said, "the taxpayers pay for them." He said, "If I lived in your city I should apply for an injunction in the courts; we must depend upon the Carnegies and the Rockefellers for such privileges." I asked him whether he would submit to taxation for the punishment of the delinquent children who were delinquent because we did not give them any opportunity for the expression of the play instinct of their child life. He said that was "a different proposition." Physician though he was, that man was actually so benighted that he could not see that taxation for the formative influences which shape character is quite as legitimate as that for the penal or reformatory treatment of those who are delinquent, in large numbers of cases, because there is no chance afforded them for the free play of their God-given nature. Had I the maps of the special park commission, on which I am serving in Chicago, I could show you that the delinquency of children brought before the Juvenile Court is in exact proportion to the lack of play space and park areas. So it is a civic problem and as Mazzini said of every industrial problem, that "in the last analysis it is a moral and religious problem," so this problem of play in its influence upon the formation of character is a religious problem. It is religion that after all has raised it into a pressing problem, for he who stood between the child and the world and said, "Of such is the kingdom of heaven," and to those of older years, "You can not even enter that kingdom unless you come to be like this little child;" he who lodged upon conscience and heart the awfulest anathema in human language that it were "better for a millstone to be hung about our neck and we be cast into the depth of the sea rather than that we should cause one of these little ones to stumble or offend;" he it is, and those who share his spirit, that have made insistent this demand for not only the child's play, but for the play of the people. This problem of the social conscience and heart and intellect, brought here in this program; and to be presented in that extended program of the National Playground Association which is to be carried out, fortunately for the city of Chicago, in that metropolis of the west, is a way-mark of human progress.

Here in Minneapolis this discussion comes fortunately, when the securing of vacant lots which surround one of the largest schools is being urged upon the Park Commission by the teachers of that school, with the backing of the Board of Education, the people of the vicinity offering even to pay for the purchase of the lots, and asking nothing even for improvement, only that this ground be secured for the playground of their children.

A little girl in the vicinity of the settlement where I live, wistfully looking through the bars of the fence, said to one of the residents, "Mister, may I please put my foot on your grass?" I think perhaps that the plea of this little child, divorced from Mother Nature and denied any place to play, is sufficient introduction to the program of the morning

MR. POND, Ohio—Might I ask the Fresh Air Movement lady a question? Does this fresh air movement and the light movement tend to get people at

home to raise their curtains and open their windows and let more light and air in every day?

MRS. INGRAM—If you could hear the stories of some of our families that come home from the seashore in New York, you would think they do carry these lessons home with them. Some of the fathers who have not been away, come to the office and say that they cannot sleep at night because the children must have the windows open and they have to wait until the children are all sound asleep and then go and close the windows surreptitiously.

MR. WHITTAKER, Indiana—I am heartily in favor of playgrounds for our schools and also for the congested cities. I think, though, there is a possibility with the playground—we might go too far, and have the playgrounds too large, and not the proper supervision of those playgrounds when the children are there. If it be possible for the mothers and fathers to always be with the children so much the better, but with hundreds of children congregated without proper supervision in large playgrounds, I doubt the advisability of too much of them. What I personally want to say and want to put myself on record as a delegate of this Convention, is as to the question of child labor. I am afraid that too many of these delegates will go home committed to the proposition of the Senator from Indiana upon this question. I want to say that the question of child labor is largely a local condition, and that there should be no general law that will not permit children between the ages of twelve and sixteen years to work at reasonable work.

MISS MCDOWELL, Chicago—I think we have not said anything about the supervision of the recess during the public school life. I do not suppose there is anything more necessary. We take care of the children during school hours and then turn them out, and no one will have a thought for them at that recess time. We hear very bad stories from time to time about little children. Now, I don't want anyone to interfere with the child's play. I only want the mothering of it, but I think it is a very necessary thing that the recess time should be mothered.

CLARENCE W. HADDEN, Cleveland, Ohio—I think that frequently we are tempted to interfere with the child's play, and impress upon the child our own thoughts about the matter and not allow the child to develop normally. I believe in the playground. I have been superintendent for some time of the Dock Boys Club. Our proposition is the proposition after school hours, in the afternoon and in the evening, and the play spirit is a thing we come in contact with most of the time. We seek to supplement the work of the school, the home and the church, and not to take the place of either. Play is to be used by those who are working with children to educate the child. We ought to use the play instinct in the child in leading it and developing it gradually into the most perfect and fullest life.

I hope that those who are engaged in the work with children in the institutions are using the play instinct of the child to develop it into normal life.

Miss Wood—I have been wondering just what use was made of the school grounds out of school hours. We have an enormous investment in America in our public schools, and much of the time the buildings are not used and the playgrounds we see idle. During all the months of the vacation the children are on the outside and the janitor prohibits them from coming in. Could not our school boards make it possible to have the school grounds open for play? I would like to know if anything of that kind is done in New York.

Mrs. Ingram—In New York some of the schools have roof gardens that are open during the summer for the people. I am sorry to say that the roof gardens are so high up that the tired mother with the sick baby finds it hard to go to the top. There is an effort being made to have elevators put in some of the schools for the purpose of using large roofs during the summer. The playgrounds or yards are not always the healthiest and airiest places during the summer. Some of them are enclosed, but some of them are also used for play places. Greater efforts are being made to have the school roofs and yards used by all the children of the neighborhood. The hall basements of some of the schools on the East Side in New York are turned into play places and club meetings, and games and athletics, in the winter.

Mr. Taylor—What opportunity is given in the school houses of New York for the play and recreation of the older people? I find quite as much necessity for the play of the mother and father and bread winners as I do of the child. Is there any opportunity given?

Mrs. Ingram—Yes, there is, but I am not prepared with facts. Some of the schools have mothers' and children's classes. Some of the teachers stay in the afternoon and institute games and lessons—instructive games—and gather the pupils' mothers in other rooms.

Mr. Pond, Ohio—You mean games for mothers?

Mrs. Ingram—Yes, games for mothers.

Mr. Pond—What do you play?

Mrs. Ingram—Meetings. I have not heard any of the fathers coming to these meetings except to the lectures. We have a splendid system of public lectures in the schools during the very long winter season, and these rooms are often crowded with the men and older brothers, as well as the women of the family.

Mr. John B. Martin, Boston—I desire to say for our city that the open playground system has taken a very strong hold, and Boston has invested in open air plots a very large amount of money. The school yards are open during the vacation season, and teachers and instructors are in charge. We also have a private fund left by a benevolent gentleman, Mr. George L. Randage, by which we are enabled to take some 25,000 children yearly during the summer months on a day's excursion down the harbor, starting

early in the morning and giving them a lunch and allowing them to play on the large grounds on Long Island during the day, and returning in the evening, and that has been a great benefit to our young people who can in no other way get a day's outing.

MR. TAYLOR—I wish to add to this information that in Chicago the open spaces that have formerly been under the supervision, or rather the neglect, of the Commissioner of Public Works, and absolutely utilized for no public purpose, have been turned over to the Special Parks Commission, and are now being used as play places for the people in the most congested districts.

Needy Families; Their Homes and Neighborhoods.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY A. W. GUTRIDGE, GENERAL SECRETARY OF ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, ST. PAUL, MINN., CHAIRMAN.

Last year it was decided that two committees which in recent years have had place on the program of the Conference—the Committee on Needy Families in Their Homes and that on Neighborhood Work—should for this year be combined.

While the two lines of benevolent activity—charity organization work and settlement work—thus temporarily united, emphasize somewhat differently the many characteristics which they have in common, they agree fully in placing the greatest possible stress upon the value of personal service as a means of social regeneration. Indeed, personal service comes near to being the life principle of both. In this important particular the two movements, born of the same people at almost the same time, have from the beginning been identical. Each had at first its own defensive work to do. People who fancied relief to be the chief factor in helping needy families, and those who thought that the clubs and classes largely constituted the settlement, had to be set right. Doing this beclouded a little the real purpose of both, but the plan of constructive and reconstructive, even preventive, work which both proclaimed and depended upon was personal service. Both held, and still hold, steadfastly to the idea that rehabilitation and development must come through the sharing of the lives of those to be helped. The professional charity organization worker and the professional settlement worker have thus the same purpose. Each has his own daily round of material things to do, a sort of housekeeping, but they live for the same thing, to communicate the strength which they feel they possess in their own persons to their less fortunate brothers. So, too, the volunteer settlement worker and the friendly visitor connected with the Associated Charities aim to reach the same end by substantially the same means. The difference is that in the former case one person

has considerable time at his own disposal which he improves by placing himself where he becomes a real friend of three or four families; in the latter case three or four persons have a little free time which they use by each making himself a part of the life of one family.

The two classes ministered to may be said to be different, yet they are always so near to each other as to overlap in places. The field of each particular settlement is narrower than that of the Charity Organization Society, but this gives opportunity for greater intensity in the work. Generally it may be said that the two movements have kept pace with each other in the general forward movement arising from our widening horizon, manifested by the better recognition of the relation of the individual to the family, the family to the neighborhood and the neighborhood to the district. Both, however, as is being pointed out by prominent representatives of both lines of work, still feel that the finest part of the service they render is the individual work. So it will be distinctly in the spirit of both, if in a report upon the work for needy families, their homes and neighborhoods, occasion is taken to dwell upon the merit and power of personal service.

First, it seems good to draw attention again to the need of husbanding time to be devoted to personal service because of the danger of its being crowded out. Other good and necessary features of social activity can be seen more easily by the casual observer, are thus more likely to be spoken of, are better advertising material, so to speak, and are really much easier to do. There is nothing spectacular in the sweet, direct, noiseless passage of power and vision from a richly-endowed soul to one stunted or warped by the want of opportunity. So there is a constant temptation to give attention first to things that are more tangible. The many new lines of work undertaken of late years by charity organization societies, while greatly in need of being done, have, it is safe to say, interfered more or less with the steady personal lift; and the splendid, fruitful, civic activities of some of the settlements have doubtless been carried on at the partial expense of the personal touch.

This report, however, takes the liberty of speaking again the encouraging word to the faithful, generally overburdened with the doing of the things which must be done, and disheartened by the sight of so much needing to be done which they can not

reach. The history of social advance establishes the fact that for permanent results there are few agencies, if any, likely to be so fruitful as personal service. It would seem, therefore, to be to the advantage of both lines of helpfulness embraced in this report to shape the work so that personal service shall always have a prominent place, and attention is especially directed to the wisdom of cultivating the comparatively large volume of volunteer personal service available, of keeping before the people the enduring fact that to be given the opportunity to communicate capacity and self-control to a character perishing for the food necessary to its life is a high and blessed privilege, well repaying the labor of doing and the preparatory training necessary.

In both settlement work and charity organization work there can be no doubt but a substantial increase in the right kind of volunteer workers is possible and greatly to be desired. The last issue of the Bibliography of Settlements gives an aggregate of about 4,500 volunteer workers exclusive of those in residence in the 192 settlements in the country, sixty-six not reporting any. The notations in the bibliography concerning each settlement indicate a great variety of opinion as to what constitutes a worker. But in any event the whole number is considerable. In the larger cities, however, only a few of the districts needing the settlement are now occupied by it, and although settlement methods are being adopted somewhat by churches, missions, etc., it appears certain that to have the settlement reach many localities where it is greatly needed, especially for preventive work, it will be necessary to find a way to enlist the services of a much larger number of volunteer workers, both resident and non-resident.

Of volunteer personal service connected with charity organization societies, however, the committee has made special study. To 150 of the largest charity organization societies in the United States and Canada a letter was written calling for definite information, as follows:

> 1. Please state the number of volunteer visitors connected with your society who have occupied that relation for at least one year, who visit the dependent families assigned them frequently, who give no material relief and who often and regularly meet with other visitors for counsel.
>
> 2. State the number of volunteer workers connected with your society for a shorter period than one year, but who

are otherwise subject to the qualifications mentioned in the first request.

3. Give the whole number of volunteer visitors connected with your society who visit assigned families frequently and who meet often and regularly for counsel.

4. Do you assign families to visitors who do not meet with the other visitors in conference, but who work independently? If so, give the number of such.

5. State the whole number of families being visited by volunteer visitors connected with your society.

6. What degree of success have you had in the rehabilitation of families by means of friendly visiting?

7. Has there been more, or less, success in the families where the visitors have given material relief than in the families where the visitors have given none?

8. Are the friendly visitors known by the dependent to be connected with your society?

9. State what effect friendly visiting has had in improving the charitable methods of the general public in your city.

10. State whether or not it is made the duty of an agent in each district in your city to devote part or full time to securing visitors and to promoting friendly visiting.

11. Please speak of anything else in friendly visiting which appears to you to be important, or of difficulties which you have encountered in establishing or maintaining the work.

By accident the word "workers" instead of "visitors" found its way into the second request, and may have misled some. It was also intended to make an inquiry concerning well-trained visitors who formerly were regularly enrolled, but who are now in some way prevented from meeting with others in council, yet they often confer with the agents of the society. Visitors of this class may be highly effective. The distinction between the first and second classes, as to whether or not the visitor had been in the work for a greater or less period than one year, was made because experience shows it usually takes about a year to make certain that a visitor has complete bearings. A greater period of service is needed for unqualified results.

One hundred and two replies were received, although the amount of labor necessary, especially in the case of the largest societies, was very great. Of these, one reported disbandment, two

stated that the person possessing the information could not be reached, 40 acknowledged that they had no system of friendly visiting, at least 13 showed they had no definite idea of the term "friendly visiting," 34 were able to say that they had visitors of the first class—those who have visited dependent families assigned them frequently for at least one year, who give no material relief and who often and regularly meet with other visitors for counsel, and 12 other societies have some organized plan of volunteer visiting. The aggregate number of visitors of the first class reported was 1,433, and of the second class 712. So there are 2,145 visitors in the United States who visit dependent families assigned them frequently, who give no material relief and who often and regularly meet with other visitors for counsel. The whole number of visitors reported was about 3,000, and the number of families receiving this sort of care was given as slightly in excess of 5,000. The number of visitors who work independently is, according to the replies received, 435; about 20 of the societies having a system of visiting say that they never assign families to visitors who do not confer with the office in some way. There are probably 300 visitors in the country who no longer, for some good reason, attend conferences regularly, but who visit well and confer often with the agent. The answers indicate that much indefiniteness exists in a majority of the societies with reference to all the points mentioned in the circular.

One thousand four hundred and thirty-three visitors of the first class, while a good number, is not what we might be led to expect for the whole country. Boston, with nearly 500 such visitors, has the largest number, both absolutely and relatively. Cambridge is second, with Baltimore and St. Paul, much lower, nearly tied for third place relatively. Most encouraging reports come from Newark, Danbury and Cincinnati. Among the other societies showing definite plans of work may be mentioned those in Atlanta, Brooklyn, Denver, Evansville, Kansas City, Mo., New Bedford, Philadelphia, Portland, Me., and Washington.

The sixth question, that dealing with the success or failure of friendly visiting in the families treated, brought many interesting replies. Of the 46 societies having visitors, 7 stated that they had excellent results, 16 reported success good, 11 fair, 6 poor, 2 said the time had been too short in which to judge, and 4 did not reply. As to the effect of the visitors giving material relief, 31 out

of the 46 state that success is greatest in those families in which the visitor gives no material relief. Six say better results were had where material relief was given by the visitors, 3 that they could see no difference, 2 that the time was too short to tell, and 4 failed to report. The answers indicate that as a rule the visitors are known by the poor to be connected with the society.

Concerning the value of friendly visiting in improving the charitable methods of the community, 33 of the 46, with varying degrees of emphasis, say that it has been helpful, 2 that success has been fair, 5 no effect, 3 report it too soon to say and 3 did not reply. In six cities, a worker in each district gives full or nearly full time to promoting friendly visiting; in 13 societies part time, and so far as the replies show, in all the others this work is left to volunteers.

Concerning the difficulties which societies have encountered in establishing and maintaining friendly visiting it is clear that the great majority of them may be referred to the matter of training. A number of societies report that it is difficult to keep the visitors from allowing their sympathy to control their reason, others that visitors are impatient for results, a larger number that harm is done by the visitors deliberately giving material relief, others that there is great difficulty in getting the visitors to attend the conferences. All these and other like questions are simply matters of training. To these may be added quite a large number of societies which state in so many words that the chief need of their visitors is better training. Several societies say they once had a large number of visitors, but they were not trained, and as a consequence they have none now. On the other hand, the societies doing the most successful friendly visiting are most emphatic in ascribing a large part of their success to thorough training. Their composite answer to the committee's question is, "It is as a rule more profitable for the professional worker to spend time in training volunteers to do curative work than to do it directly, himself." No one can read the replies to the committee's circular which have been received without being deeply impressed by the frequency with which this question of training is in some way referred to. All this means that while a few new visitors may, without special emphasis on training, be taken into the work in societies where friendly visiting is well established, in other societies this can not be done. Some training must be insisted upon in advance, if success is to be attained.

A matter worth considering here is that the interest in training visitors is dependent upon the importance attached to personal service by the society. If a high value is placed upon it by the regular workers the volunteers will feel the necessity for preparation in order to fit themselves to do the work. The need of proceeding with caution in work for dependent families, and the need of going to the right sources for information, are doubtless the chief factors in the problem of training. It consists largely in a thorough grounding in principles, in obtaining the point of view. The idea of the professional worker often finds unconscious expression in the letters received. If the writer opens his letter by saying that some of the visitors give material relief, he is not quite sure how many, or that the visitors do not visit frequently, or that they do not attend the conferences well, or that several work independently, the answer as to the success of the work is always that it is poor. If the answer to the circular states positively that none of the visitors ever give material relief, that they visit industriously, that they meet frequently for counsel, that families are never assigned to visitors who do not confer often, that emphasis is placed rather upon what the visitor is than upon what he does, the statement concerning the degree of success is always unqualifiedly favorable.

On the subject of the giving of material relief by the visitors, every society having a successful body of friendly visitors is positively opposed to allowing relief to be handled by any but the experienced, well-trained visitors, and the great majority of the societies in which the work is succeeding allow no material relief giving by the friendly visitor. Many societies where the visitors give relief, report the downfall of particular visitors who were successful up to the attempt to be almoners to their families. Of course it is a fact that it is possible to give material relief and still maintain a right relation to the family, but it is not an easy thing to do. Beginners should not desire to use a means requiring so much care and skill to operate properly.

A class of workers often spoken of in the replies to our circular are the collectors in the Provident savings work. In Orange, N. J., and especially in Newport, R. I., there are a large number of families being visited in this way. There is opportunity for the extension of this kind of service. So far as it goes it is genuine friendly visiting. Its effectiveness is well established.

Another matter frequently mentioned in the reports received,

is the increasing social importance of the visiting nurse. There can be no doubt that there are great opportunities for personal work in the visiting nurse's hands, which are enlarged if she avoids specially emphasizing the fact that she is a nurse. She is none the less, but rather more effective as a nurse on this account.

The successful incidental friendly visiting done by the provident fund agent and the visiting nurse, suggests the idea that the point made by some societies not to have the visited know that the friendly visitor has any connection with the Charity Organization Society has merit.

More than one society laments the fact that it has no men acting as visitors. There are indications, however, that if the matter were properly worked up and the meeting hour fixed in the evening, a comparatively large corps of men might be organized as friendly visitors. Once rightly at work such visitors would certainly be decidedly effective.

Of the 104 direct answers received, almost all speak of the high value placed on personal service. There is a difference in emphasis, some assigning a larger part to paid workers than do others. But it is significant that out of all the societies written to, only four say that for all purposes they prefer paid personal service. The great majority are anxious to increase the number of friendly visitors and more firmly to establish the work. Even from the societies having no volunteer visitors the statement is frequent that they believe strongly in the efficacy of friendly visiting and mean soon to have a conference of visitors. In some cities there are accidental obstacles to the enlargement of the corps of visitors. A few societies have a larger number of paid visitors because of the difficulty or seeming difficulty of securing the right kind of volunteers. But there is an inspiring note of satisfaction in the tone of the society which has had friendly visiting organized for some time and which has insisted on thoroughness in training and in visiting. One correspondent speaks of it as, "The most important agency for constructive work ever thought of." Another, that after an experience of twenty-nine years, "the directors and staff believe increasingly in the efficacy of friendly visiting," and so on.

The answers to the question as to the effect friendly visiting has had in improving the charitable method of the public, arouses the greatest enthusiasm. One correspondent writes, "Each visitor becomes a center of educative influence in favor of organized

charity." Several say it has had an excellent effect upon the churches. Another says it stimulates co-operation. Another that public as well as private relief methods of the city have by it been improved. Another that it has wholly changed civic conditions. There can be no doubt friendly visiting is a tremendous educative social force. Charity workers generally feel the truth of Mr. Devine's statement, "It is not too much to say that the chief aim of the Charity Organization Society is to improve the charitable methods of the public." Considered from this point of view the importance of planning so as to secure the co-operation of a large force of friendly visitors would seem to be controlling. Here is certainly another important reason for the enlistment of real friendly visitors.

In conclusion, to relieve and improve needy families, their homes and neighborhoods, either through the settlement or the Charity Organization Society, attention is respectfully drawn to the efficacy of volunteer personal service. This is not to minimize the value of other lines of work; but however important it is that the house occupied by the needy family should be suitable, the home is still more important. A better house often helps to make a better home and it is good to work in that way, but it will not always succeed. The most distinctive feature of any neighborhood is the people in it. Some neighborhoods can not be improved because of the people in them. Our method of improving the house and the neighborhood is to improve the people there. While not all of the needy can be relieved or developed by improving the physical environment, there is no trustworthy evidence going to show that there are any so far below the normal that they may not be reached by the redeeming power of love expressed in intelligent personal service.

FRIENDLY VISITING.

MISS MARY E. RICHMOND, GENERAL SECRETARY SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY, PHILADELPHIA.

Preparatory to writing this paper, I have corresponded with sixty friendly visitors in twelve different cities. The volunteer work in which they are engaged—that of visiting continuously a few families with whom they have become acquainted on many sides—is only one of many forms of usefulness now open to those who, hav-

ing other duties, can give only a part of their time to social service. Our educational associations are urging the need of school visitors to make better connection between the school and the home; in several cities the courts are making effective use of volunteer probation officers; the volunteer rent collector is an important part of our better housing programs; with the home savings collector we long have been familiar; this Conference has just brought before us the plan of volunteer visitors for wayward girls; and probably the latest field of usefulness for the volunteer is in the new tuberculosis classes.

By profession I am one who organizes remedial and preventive measures for dealing with distress in families, and the friendly visitor is quite generally recognized among my colleagues as a useful means to that end. I desire to forget all this, however, to get away from the cramping professional standards, and to think and write about friendly visiting, if the thing be possible, as a human being.

> "He who blows thro' bronze, may breathe thro' silver,
> Fitly serenade a slumbrous princess.
> He who writes, may write for once as I do—"

the "slumbrous princess" typifying the unawakened, unregenerate man or woman who has lost touch, who, let us suppose, knows well a good many people with his own sized income or with bigger ones, and is content with this. Some of these comrades he meets at the board meetings of charitable institutions, or of the church vestry, and some in his business, academic, professional or recreational relations. He is inclined to believe that the ability to maintain personal relations with his least fortunate fellow-citizens is "the gift of nature," and that he was not born with it, forgetting that it's no such long while ago since the members of his own family held such relations daily and as a matter of course; forgetting, too, that the politician plays his trump card just here and wins, whenever, in a spasm of civic righteousness, we try to put him out of power.

One of the most deplorable results of our changed ways of living in cities is that we are finding it more and more easy to hold and express the most approved views about poverty without maintaining any personal relations with poor people whatever. Unconsciously but very rapidly we have been slipping away from a deeply varied social experience, one in which rich and poor, land-

lord and tenant, employer and workman, tradesman and purchaser, dwelt together "in visible relationship," into a stratified life in which our social relations are sadly impoverished. The trolley-car, the suburban train, the telephone, and the reorganization of the methods of production and distribution, have changed our habits of human intercourse, and what Mr. Wells says of London is equally true in this country: "Our people have overflowed their containing locality; they live in one area, they work in another, and they go to sleep in a third. And the only way in which you can localize them again is to expand your areas to their new scale." This was written of the areas of municipal administration, but it applies quite as well to a larger neighborliness. Those who ride live in a larger neighborhood than those who travel afoot, and those who ride by rail or by electricity can have larger community interests than those who depend upon horse power, but this is such a recent expansion of opportunity that life has been, for the moment, narrowed thereby. Things—intervening and ever-multiplying things—are keeping us monstrously busy with the surface. We do not read or crave so much poetry, the publishers tell us; material comforts are choking within us the very springs of sympathy and compassion. The trolley and the train carry us away from the sights and sounds that we associate with distress, and we have not discovered that the lines travel both ways.

Civilization drops every now and then some necessary part of its luggage in this way and has to travel back to pick it up—an awkward process, or one that always seems so to the onlooker. We have had so many houses that we have been forced to rediscover fresh air, and so many cooked dishes that we have had to rediscover milk and eggs. How clumsily we have been doing it many members of this Conference can testify. And now social contact with all sorts and conditions of men—a thing so necessary to our social health and sanity—this lost package also we are rediscovering very clumsily indeed.

The loss to the poor through social stratification has been great, the loss to the country politically has been greater, and the loss to the relatively well-to-do has been greatest of all. It is true that all save the poorest live in a larger world physically speaking than formerly, but they live in it in a more provincial spirit, for theirs is the distinguishing mark of the provincial in that they are coming to be no longer able "to find interest in any form of life that is not clad in the same coat-tails and flounces as their own."

The most obvious remedy for this predicament of the well-to-do would be to seek opportunities for better acquaintance and greater helpfulness in their natural relations with the poor, but the very crux of their difficulty is that no such relations exist. Let anyone think over the list of his acquaintances—the young couples, professional people, who live in the suburbs; the solid midde-aged people who have a town house and a country house; their son back from the technical school, who has views about civics and views about sports; their daughter, who has left college and is beginning to find society a bore, or else who never went to college, but came out early and so ditto, ditto. They have their charities and their clubs and their "interests," but are they not for the most part hopelessly cut off from real contact with their fellows and with the main stream of our national life? The only poor that they know at all are the parasites who seek them out, and the odd jobs people who are still in some instances employed by them directly, and not through a middleman.

I turn from this increasingly large group to the very small group of my correspondents who have contrived, with the aid of certain charity organization societies, to overcome the disadvantages of modern electrical conveniences and get back into genuine relations with people of smaller incomes. "The field is the world," as one of them reminds me, and this is a mere handful of specimen soil, but some things that are true of it are true of soils and harvests everywhere. Violating no confidences, for some of these letters are very personal, let me choose a few of the passages in them that bear upon this one question of contact.

One correspondent writes, getting quite to the heart of the matter:

> The greatest barrier in the visitor's path is his own feeling of the difference between himself and the people he wishes to help; as soon as he begins to feel the likeness between himself and them, the way is clear for him to act, and there are endless possibilities for his usefulness.

Another, whose letter recalled an interview many years back in which she had contended with me almost hotly that she could never be a friendly visitor because a poor man's house was his castle, writes as follows:

> I have observed that those new visitors who have the greatest possibilities are apt to shrink from intruding on

a family with no other excuse than that they mean to improve bad conditions. I would remind them that as a rule they go to a family in some time of great stress, some crisis, and that any one of us is more ready to accept quite simply any offer of friendliness at such a time. We do not resent it as an impertinence that a stranger, seeing our house on fire, should immediately rush in and begin to carry our goods to a place of safety without waiting for a formal introduction.

A visitor who took my queries to a district conference of visitors for reply, writes:

> They thought it would be well to tell stories of successful visitors and to remind people who do not know much of our work, that there is absolutely no "pushing in" to families where one is not wanted, but that all new visitors go to a new family with a definite object in mind, and that the introduction is easy.

The three quotations that follow show how differently and yet how vitally fine natures are touched by this particular human experience.

> For I think everyone would be glad of the added richness which such contact brings into one's own life. Besides touching so many of the most interesting social questions, it gives one a taste of *real life*, which seems to me deeper and fuller of real pleasure and interest than many of the so-called joys of life, so eagerly sought after—and often missed! Then, I believe nothing else brings a deeper belief in the underlying good in everyone than this close touch with—not "the slums"—but our brothers.

> But the visitor who comes in condescension from a "better sphere" is an impertinence. What warrant has anyone even in the name of charity to thrust themselves into the life of a family, to see it as a spectacle, to use its revelations as a zest to their own easier lot, or to make it a matter of small talk? Straight-out giving is infinitely better, to my thinking, than wanton meddling with others' lives * * * * *

It has taught me that standards of living are the result of income, rather than the result of inherent differences, of superiority of nature; the contrary is the general attitude of mind on the part of the well-disposed who are "interested in charities." It has taught me that cleanliness is a luxury which costs time and money; generally those who need us have neither to spare for this purpose. That to ask those who are condemned by fate and poverty to squalid surroundings and employments that do not permit cleanliness to at once conform to the fastidious notions of those who live outside this world is a foolishness, firstly, because in any range of human life few heads lift themselves above the level; secondly, except in cases where idleness or sin cause the poverty, it does not mean of necessity moral turpitude. One can not go about among the poor learning to know them in their full humanity without finding the elemental virtues in full measure.

My own first impression came with the force of a shock. I suddenly felt myself a social factor and felt a proper pride in being fitted to work in harmony with the body politic. Many years of charity work on my own hook had failed to arouse this feeling, and many years of team work, in the school and in the church, had failed to stir this spirit of the hive * * * *

The work has given me more than I have given it. There has been an amazing acquisition of information and a phenomenal growth in ability and fitness. Private study, the school and the college, had never given me the education that friendly visiting, and its accompaniments, have brought about in a few months. The work has given me a new kind of self-discipline. In private life I may have my own way, and reap therefore only the harvest of individual failure and broken friendship; in friendly visiting, I may not say everything I think, I may not be self-willed or heady, I may not be disagreeable even for my neighbor's good or my own satisfaction, because I injure more than myself; I hurt the cause in which I am enlisted; I am disloyal. By continued self-restraint I come

to see that there is a cause for every shortcoming, and I can not quarrel with results the causes of which it is my peculiar task to discover.

The next five extracts are taken in turn from the letters of two mothers, two spinsters, and a widow:

Perhaps it has not occurred to you how great an influence this "friendly visiting" work may have in the home of the visitor. For years we, as a family, have talked and planned concerning the families I have called upon, and besides getting us acquainted with the best methods of helping others, it has had a broadening effect upon our own lives. My husband has been instrumental in reclaiming the "drunkard," whom I have spoken of in this letter.

I think one of the great helps of visiting is that it gives one a truer sense of proportion. This is especially true of mothers of young children who are apt to think the world revolves around their own individual child. My family consists of a widow and nine children, and it is very inspiring to me in coping with my four children to see how wonderfully the widow, with every handicap, manages her nine.

The work is peculiarly fruitful to the childless person, for it brings love and the dependence of little ones into her life.

I am as proud of my little girls' progress in school as if they had been my own; while, when my friends moved into a better house where the sun really found them, and bought with their savings an $18 set of furniture, I felt as if I had come into a fortune myself! Then, when my friend was ill, and all her poor, hard-worked neighbors gave of their scant time and means to help her, as many of my friends would not have done for me in like case—I realized more what real sympathy meant and learned another lesson.

What have I gained by the work, and what has it meant to me? you ask. It has broadened my whole life; it has

> given me work to do when a personal sorrow claimed my thoughts. And it has gained for me, I know, one very loyal friend among the poor.

There is no reason, of course, why men should not be friendly visitors, though a majority of my correspondents are women. A man wrote the following:

> My visiting has, I fear, meant more to me than to those whom I visited. It has meant a change of thought and work most refreshing and invigorating; it has broadened my point of view along industrial, economic, educational, social and religious lines.

And those two must close my citations, though they might be indefinitely extended from the very interesting letters in my possession:

> I have done enough visiting, and for years enough, to have reaped the veteran's exceeding great reward. I have seen results. I have watched pauper-born children develop into good citizens.
>
> My chosen families are now in the third generation and look after *me*.

I have said that the effort to recover any one of the lost packages of civilization must seem very awkward to the onlooker, and this recovering of relations with our fellows is no exception. One of the best friendly visitors known to me told recently of a college friend who had seemed unusually kind and capable, but who had had an unfortunate experience in attempting to visit a few poor families soon after she left college. Not only had she had no success, but she had brought away from her failure a new set of prejudices. The visited families may have suffered a similar disillusionment, and all of this was due, probably, to the absence of guidance. Starting blindly to follow an overgrown path, she had lost her way, and my informant added that a good start in such work seemed to her the one essential.

What have volunteers a right to demand from the agencies with which they ally themselves as visitors? First, knowledge of the conditions that surround the families visited, and knowledge of the probabilities of success or failure. Second, interpretation of the

visitor's experiences, which should be patiently related to the neighborhood, to the city or town, and to the widest social issues. Charitable societies, however good their intentions, have no right to meddle with the lives of the poor unless they can better them. And in quite as literal a sense, charities have no right to enlist the services of volunteers unless, in the course of carrying out their own programs, they can contrive to make their volunteer workers better men and women. The responsibility is a serious one, and visitors are justified in refusing to associate themselves with charities in which it is not seriously taken.

We hear much about trained paid workers in these days, but the supreme test of a trained worker is the ability to turn to good account the services of the relatively untrained. The better the friendly visitor, the higher the standard of professional charitable service that he will demand, and the higher the standard of professional service, the more good friendly visitors there will be. This is not merely a cheering example of reciprocity; it is the larger half of social reform.

FORTY-THREE FAMILIES TREATED BY FRIENDLY VISITING.

MISS ELEANOR HANSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF FRIENDLY VISITING, ST. PAUL, MINN.

During the years 1903 and 1904, the number of needy families assigned to friendly visitors by the Associated Charities of St. Paul, was forty-three.

The families selected for assignment to visitors are always those in which there is some stubborn problem. Not having visitors enough, the great majority of the simpler cases are otherwise treated. It should be said, too, that while the list embraces some of the very worst cases that came to the notice of the society, it does not include all, as the most difficult are not given to beginners, and there were not enough experienced visitors to take all of them. But it is just to say that the forty-three families now being considered, are from the most persistent cases of dependency coming before the society during the period.

As to the visitors, they were fairly typical volunteers. The obstacles that usually go with this sort of effort were not absent here. The work for the forty-three families involved the attention of thirty-six visitors. As a rule they were devoted in their service, but four did not find the interest controlling and gave up. Some were prevented by home duties from visiting as frequently as they desired; others had full opportunity. Six visitors left the city and two died, leaving incompleted work, and there were the usual other hindrances.

I have here the outline of the condition of all these families as it existed at the time treatment began and as it is now, but I will read only the first four assigned.

No. 1. The family consisted of husband, wife and five children. He was 36 years of age, she 28, the children two months to five years. American. He intemperate and lazy, worked about livery stables. She incapable and careless. Children neglected. Known to the charities nine years. Had received public relief occasionally for eight years. Real paupers.

No. 2. Family consisted of husband, wife and six children. He was 48 years of age, she 30, the children two to ten years. German, laborer; both ignorant, incapable, ambitionless. Known to the charities nine years; had received public relief at intervals all of the time. The case had come up again at the time by reason of the man's having injured his shoulder while at work in a sewer. He was refusing to exercise his arm, on the advice of a typical personal injury attorney.

In No. 3, the case was reported by the landlord, who said he had heard we had some kind of visitors who went to dirty houses and cleaned them. The desirable tenants threatened to move because of the filth of this family. About this time the man committed suicide, leaving five children, two to thirteen years of age. This brought out the family history. The husband had for years led a dissolute, immoral life, and the wife had become wholly indifferent to the home and family—little industry, no forethought, no serious interest. Thus public relief commenced immediately after the man's death. Soon it became known that a sister who had come to keep house while the woman went out to work, was taking one of the younger children through the residence district begging. Improvidence, shiftlessness, filth and disorder were established traits.

No. 4. Widow with six children. Polish, 39 years old, children

six to eighteen years. She a laundress, oldest girl in a factory. Husband had been insane for some years before his death. This had led the family to consider themselves special objects of pity, so all were shiftless and dependent. Known to the charities ten years; much public aid.

So the list runs, embracing 28 men, 43 women, and 207 persons in all.

The present condition of the forty-three families is as follows: Twenty-three are now leading normal, self-supporting lives, and this has been the condition in some instances for over three years, and in no instance for less than about two years. In five of the forty-three a condition of self-support has been established, except for one refractory member in each, three men, one woman and one boy. Twelve families are distinctly improved, three are unimproved and none are worse.

Perhaps the brightest feature of the result is the capacity acquired by the parents to consider and control the children.

The relation existing between the quality of the visiting and the degree of success attained in each individual case can be seen.

Reference to the present condition may be briefly made of the four families described. No. 1 is one of those where only improvement, not cure, can be reported. Cases in which intemperance is a large factor are not easy to reach. This is one of the families, also, in which the work of the visitor was seriously interrupted by her home duties. The children attend school regularly, however, and the woman keeps better house. The man's earnings have been such that relief has not been necessary for over three years. The unsatisfactory feature relates to their characters, which seem not to be much improved. We would not be surprised to have them apply for relief.

In No. 2 husband and wife soon became very fond of the visitor and lest they should lose her visits he began to try to use his arm. The developments began quietly. One after another element in order appeared. The people were so ignorant that instruction seemed to form quite a factor. The woman in particular developed here, and was very happy in the acquisition of new powers. The details can not be dwelt upon, but the house was made clean, long-standing debts, with the woman's help, were paid, ambition and a healthy view of life came in. Even the temptings of the child insurance man were withstood. The woman is now so strong in character that she has become the counselor of the neighborhood.

In No. 3, after many weeks of apparent fruitless visiting, there appeared a clean curtain at the street door. The visitor expressed her pleasure at this, and was told it had been placed there by the tenant downstairs. On the next visit there were clean curtains at the three windows of the family living room. The most was made of this, and it proved to be the beginning of great things. One by one other changes came. The floors and chairs were cleaned and then the beds and walls. A position was secured for the oldest girl where she was under good influences. She developed satisfactorily. The mother became industrious, the begging stopped, the children were kept in school and their former place of living is now a real home.

In No. 4, the Polish widow and six children, complete success has been attained. It was here that after the second call the visitor begged at the conference to be allowed to take just a pair of stockings to the baby, as the season was winter and the baby's feet were bare. At a subsequent call she found that all the children possessed sufficient warm clothing, acquired from several sources, but that in the general disorder and confusion, articles so small as babies' stockings could seldom be found, and in the daily scramble for something to put on, no child secured the same things two successive days. If he found two shoes, two mittens and one cap that he could wear, those were his for the day, or until they were mislaid. The visitor chanced to be present at a dressing time, which furnished her opportunity. At the close of the winter's visiting, order and thrift had been introduced into the home. The woman developed self-reliance and they have received no aid for three years and a half. Nearly two years ago she married a good, industrious widower with five children, and now all eleven children are devoted admirers of the twelfth, six months old.

In reporting results of friendly visiting in these families, it is not possible to point out definite methods of procedure, nor to say just when and how certain changes for the better took place. All who have given thought to friendly visiting, know that the good is realized in the family visited by the personal touch of the visitor, not by the things she may do, however useful such acts may be. Whatever good has been accomplished by friendly visiting in these forty-three families has come about because the visitors have gone to them, in a spirit of genuine friendliness, and have curbed the very natural desire to be always doing something for the family.

WORK FOR NORMAL YOUNG WORKING WOMEN.

MISS MARY E. McDOWELL, HEAD OF UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT, CHICAGO, ILL.

If we are to work for or with normal working young women, we must know them industrially and socially.

The working children have won their public, but the wage-earning girls, many of them children in knowledge and experience, have not yet arrested the thought of the nation, and yet there is no more significant social fact before the community today than that given in the last census, that there are five million self-supporting women in the United States, and that over three million are earning wages in factories, shops and as domestic servants. To work intelligently for these three million we must in some sense understand their problem, and its relation to the future welfare of our country.

Therefore, I shall not dwell upon the methods of work for working girls, and I have purposely avoided a discussion of "Welfare Work," "Working Girls' Clubs," or the "Young Woman's Christian Association's" work in factories, boarding houses, etc., and have tried to give a glimpse into the larger subject of the industrial situation of the working girl. My only hope is that I may start questions that all of us working together as a people will have to answer.

At the Industrial Exhibit held in Chicago last March, you might have read the dramatic story of Woman in Industry. As you entered the hall your eye caught this legend in large print: "Women Have Always Worked."

In the evening the tableaux showing primitive industries gave a living picture of the important part woman played in the dawn time of history, when men did the fighting while the hands of women made the home, secured food, raiment and shelter for the family.

There you found the spinner and weaver of the domestic period. The factory period was represented by Chicago working girls making shoes and gloves by machinery at "piece work" scale. The economic and social extremes were seen. The most advanced class conscious working woman was represented by the union girl, who felt the dignity of her labor and realized her economic and social

value, while at the other extreme was the "sweatshop" worker with her foot on the treadle of the machine, and her thin fingers grinding out the work. At her breast was the nursing child, sucking like a little animal that does not need the coddling of the human, for this sweatshop mother had no time to coddle her baby.

Artists painted women at work in typical industries. "Working in the Dark" showed the film makers in the kodak factories.

The girls "At the Stockyards," who help prepare the meat for a world's market, going home at dusk with the men, while the cattle looked on from their pens.

"The Twine Worker." Young girls working with boys and men, in a crowded room, but the artist could not show a temperature damp and hot, and air filled with dust that clogs the throat and lungs of the workers.

Charts and statistics reminded the thoughtful of the match girls, who run the risk of phosphorus poisoning, of the girls working with men and boys in breweries, tanneries and iron works, where no care is taken to protect the ignorant and foolish.

The exhibit told of those who wind telephone wire, and help to make the great cables that carry our messages; of those who enamel the granite kitchen ware, of the nail makers, box makers, candy and soap wrappers, and some facts about the clerks.

"Women have always worked, but their work has altered neither in amount nor intensity; only in character, and in character less than is supposed," was another of the thought arresters seen on the wall.

This exhibit showed how very little we really know of the conditions under which these women are working today, and what effect those conditions have on the health and morals of the workers, and how difficult it is to bring home to the comfortable and well-to-do and the employing class the human needs of those girls who do the work in the factory, store and shop.

To aid in this discussion, I would like to give a few pictures that will "arrest your thought," so that we may together find what is needed to help the normal working girl. The question is, can we help her, or must she help herself? Shall we turn to legislation, or organization, or shall we be satisfied to build working girls' clubs, giving cheap board, or shall we plead with employers to set up "welfare work;" or shall we do all of these things?

The census tells us that there are over three million wage-earning

women, and those who know tell us that they are mostly under twenty-four years of age; girls of eighteen are the average; but no one tells us what is the physical and moral effect of their work. We know that they are spinning, weaving, sewing, canning, stitching our shoes and our clothes at a speed that is abnormally fast. Making our matches at a risk to health and life; making films for the kodaks in a room so dark that the visitor is led by the hand; working ten hours a day in utter darkness.

In packing houses, cutting ice-cold meat in a room 38 degrees Fahrenheit, or making twine in a room kept damp and hot, breathing dust and fiber; or working with all kinds of men and boys in breweries, tanneries, foundries, and in great iron hardware mills. Enameling our kitchen utensils and winding our telephone wires. Indeed, girls are to be found in almost every industry except mining. Why are they not in the mining industry? When Mr. Watchorn, superintendent of Ellis Island, was an officer in the United States Mine Workers and was himself employed in Pennsylvania, he found one day when he was visiting a mine, a mother working at the top of the mine, who had stopped to nurse her baby.

This scene made such an impression upon him that he went at once to the state's attorney and told the story, and from this incident came the law prohibiting women from working either within or about mines.

It was because Mr. Watchorn represented organized power that he was able to make the State of Pennsylvania act in behalf of mothers.

Then we know the cities have thousands of women clerks, whose wages do not average as high, even, as the factory worker, and whose risks are less obvious and more subtle. Their wages vary from $3.50 to $8 a week. They must dress "like ladies" and act "like ladies," which is expensive.

If they are supplementary earners living at home, the $3.50 or $5 a week helps the family, but what of the independent working girl, who must dress herself like a lady, pay for her room, food, clothes, amusements and recreations, all out of the $5 a week. She can't do it.

Lately Chicago has had revelations of what the newspapers called "White Slave Trade." Young girl clerks tempted by the offer of a "good time" have been led astray. Two reformers visited Chicago's levee one night lately, and when they tried to talk to

the girls about the sin of their lives, these girls said to these good women: "Don't waste your time on us; go down town and help raise the wages of the clerks who are trying to live on $5 and less a week." This is the bitter cry from the girls who know.

These girls have the same social instinct that all normal girls have; they want a good time and they need it more than the girls of leisure. The stenographer and the eight-hour girls have vitality enough to attend classes, and find the recreation they need, but the average unskilled, ten-hour worker needs rest and play, and a complete change from the deadly monotony of the long day's work.

The worker in a large city must ride in an overcrowded, badly-ventilated car to her overcrowded, badly-ventilated home, at a time when her fatigued body is susceptible to any germ that may be at leisure.

Fatigue is a serious factor to be considered when we are planning for the welfare of the working girls, whose work is monotonous and generally nerve-racking.

Since woman has entered the world of industry she competes with man. She helps to flood the labor market with unskilled, unorganized and casual labor. She debases wages, and because she is a woman, the sister, daughter or wife of the working man, she cannot be fought by the militant methods used with men competitors.

In a large hardware mill where 150 Hungarian girls, averaging eighteen years, many looking younger, worked, I watched a girl feed a machine of tremendous power with such each and grace that I asked the superintendent about her. She was making bolts for railroad use; the machine was warranted to make a bolt every other revolution of the machine, but this graceful girl made one every revolution; her father ran the machine at first and made a bolt every second revolution. The girl doubled the capacity of the machine, the father cut it in half; yet the superintendent told me that the daughter was paid just half the wages her father received.

"While women have always worked," they have not always received wages, except in the form of food and clothes, therefore, they were never considered an economic factor by economists, until suddenly they were found in large numbers coming into the industrial life competing with men for a living.

The habit of ages is strongly fixed in women; they expect little; take whatever compensation is offered them.

Now, that they are seeming to cut wages and are thought to be a menace to the standards set up by men workers, they are being considered seriously as an economic factor. Because they are inexperienced, unskilled, unorganized, and without political power they are almost as helpless as children.

They are in the field of industry to stay, and must be organized for their own self-protection and for the betterment of society. Three million working girls, ignorant and helpless, must be made to feel their social responsibility, or the American standard of living will be in danger. Textile workers in England raised by organization from a place so low that their trade was in great disrepute, now stand at the head and are spoken of as a class of self-respecting young women.

How shall working women be brought to a sense of their responsibility? How shall they be made self-conscious or class-conscious in a sane sense?

The fact that they are considered temporary workers, for "of course they will marry," stands in the way of bettering their own conditions. It is true the individuals may be temporary, but the mass is permanent and as a permanent factor must be dealt with.

I lunched with a woman of culture and of a good deal of wealth and influence a few days ago. Her guests were of the same class, the table was beautifully appointed, the linen was of the finest. The subject of "Women in Industry" was under discussion. The hostess, a sensitive woman, closed the discussion by saying: "Well, what can we do? I have never enjoyed my beautiful table linen since I saw a linen mill where the women had to do the weaving in a room so hot and damp." "Yes, what can we do?" the others responded. Many thoughtful men and women are asking that question, "What can *we* do about it?" I am glad to say that many have a wholesome uncomfortableness that promises better things for the helpless in industry. Is the future to be like the picture of film makers, all dark except the rays of red light that fall on the worker's white fingers? At the present moment one can not say that the picture gives a sunny prospect, but that there are hopeful rays of light is easily to be seen. Let us be reasonable and practical.

We cannot help the linen weavers by giving up the use of linen napkins, nor the kodak workers by breaking our cameras; matches must be made and ice-cold meat handled at the stockyards, if we are to light fires and eat meat.

One bit of the bright side is that in a small way (and at a great waste) women are tasting the sweetness of independence in earning their own living, and of sharing the economic burden of the family. I asked a working man once if he thought that because a girl had learned to take care of herself she would, therefore, not make a good wife. "Oh, no. On the contrary, I should think a girl who knew how to take care of herself would be better able to care for others." Mrs. Van Der Vaart found in her investigation into the working conditions of girls in Chicago factories that out of the five hundred investigated, four hundred were supporting not only themselves, but others who were dependent upon them. One hundred supporting themselves were immigrant girls without family ties, who were compelled to pay board and indirectly supported other people. The woman who toils does not work simply for clothes.

We would not, if we could, take from women their opportunity of earning a living, but we must, all of us, work together for conditions that ennoble and do not debase the future mothers of the American working people.

REMEDIES.

1. We need first to gather all the facts about the working and living conditions of wage-earning women.

(a) The relations of their work to their physical and moral health.

(b) We must have experts, women who speak foreign languages, to make a sympathetic study of the home side of this question, because we know of gangs of unmarried girls who are coming into such communities as the stockyards, without family ties, boarding in crowded quarters, where unmarried men board. These girls are in the brewery, tannery and stockyards, they do not speak English, and are unskilled in household work, but can do the work offered them. The last congress appropriated $150,000 to investigate the physical and moral conditions of working women and children, but a clause was added that "only members of the Department of Commerce and Labor shall be employed by the Commissioner of Labor," who was, after a severe fight, given charge of the investigation. This means that experts can not be placed in charge of any special piece of work, and of course will

limit in some respects the investigation that will be the first of its kind made by any government.

This should be such a significant piece of work that the Department of Commerce and Labor, and all who care for the future of our country, might be proud of it.

We hope that private means will supplement the government investigation, so that in a few years we may have a body of facts that will give us the truth as to the social and industrial tendencies of our time and make a basis for sane legislation in regard to women's work. Protective legislation for women has already been undertaken in many states on the ground that their presence in certain employments causes immorality, or injuriously affects the health of women, and imperils the vigor of the next generation; that excessive hours of work, long standing, night work and the employment of married women, or the physical and nervous strain involved in working with heavy machinery may unfit women for the burden of motherhood. Such restrictions upon the industrial freedom of women should be imposed only after the facts have been carefully investigated. This work of investigation is moreover of national importance, for the future race concerns the nation more than any individual state. We need facts on the relation of woman's work on the work and wages of the men of the family.

2. Legislation is needed for the protection of those too ignorant, too young, and too inexperienced to depend upon organizations to better their conditions. The burden of responsibility for such legislation should be laid upon society to protect the coming generation by prohibiting women from night work, from long hours, from working in poisonous atmosphere or from a speed that dehumanizes the worker. It may take a constitutional amendment to give helpless women protection from those extravagant claims to "liberty of contract" which no longer exist in reality, and which resulted in decisions by the courts in New York and Illinois giving women the right to an "academic freedom," but no guarantee that her "job" will be safe.

3. Technical schools, both public and private, manual training, trade and domestic science schools must be established that girls may be given wider and more varied opportunities for earning a livelihood, which will lessen the large numbers of unskilled workers and dignify women's work.

4. Women must be encouraged to organize to protect their own interests, they must be helped to a consciousness of their right to fair pay, fair hours and good conditions, and must learn that unless they care for themselves they cannot be of use to others.

I have tried to bring home to each one of you who represent centers of influence the problem of the normal working girl, knowing that it will take the combined forces of philanthropy, religion and politics working with organizations of the workers to counteract the evils of the factory system, and the city life today.

THE ONE MAIN THING.

RAYMOND ROBBINS, CHICAGO.

For fear that you should think that I make this claim for the one main thing, because of my limited view of the question as a whole, I want you to know this much of my point of vision. For seven years I have lived in one of the crowded west side wards of Chicago. While working in a social settlement and doing practical politics, I have been a member of the police department, the teacher of a bible class in a Congregational Sunday school and a member of a district committee of the Bureau of Charities. I am now a member of a Congregational church, and I am not a socialist.

And yet, I am so fully persuaded of the truth and importance of this *one main thing* for helping normal laboring young men that I am eager to take your time and mine on this, to me, great occasion to try and carry home to you a sense of its truth and of its significance for you and your families and the country and the world. Now this *one main thing* is *fair working conditions.* It is my deliberate judgment that not only the physical health and intellectual strength, but the morals as well of the working world are made up very largely from their working conditions. Let us consider for a moment. Many normal laboring young men do not go to church at all. Many that do, go only once a week. Over the whole growing class of first generation American laborers, the influence of the home is nearly nil. The old folks are not in touch with the life and thought of the new land. Their children are out from their sympathy and control. This is one of the great silent tragedies of our industrial immigrant life, this break of the

first generation American boy with the traditions and authority of his peasant parents. After the church and the home, what remains? Simply the working world. Day after day his industrial relationship moulds the character, physical, mental and spiritual of the young laboring man. Bad ventilation will weaken his health, long hours will dull his mind, small wages will keep him from marriage and irregularity of employment will break down his morals. Is it not clear that fair hours, fair wages, and certainty of employment under healthful surroundings, which combined make *fair working conditions,* should be the first concern of any man or institution that is honestly and with intelligence trying to help normal laboring young men? And this one main thing, fair working conditions, is not only necessary to maintain his individual life, but it is necessary to the end that he may build a home. Is it not clear that any social order or working world that does not provide for the workers at the bottom—the people doing the common labor and who will always exist in great number—conditions from which these laborers can both create and maintain a home, that, then this particular order or civilization is doomed?

For some years, I have given the conditions of common labor in this country careful study. I have worked as a casual laborer in mines, logging camps, railroad camps, on the boats and on the great lakes, in steel mills and in harvest fields. I wish to state here that there is hardly a basic industry in the United States where the common labor conditions do not violate one or more of these four essentials of fair human employment. In other words, the common labor conditions at the foundations of our industry are in many instances fundamentally anti-social and immoral. Let me present some details for your consideration. The lumber industry is one of the ancient trades. In the old days, the logger was, in his rough uncouth way, a splendid type of the pioneer. He went forth from his cabin in the forest to fell trees in the timber strip and returned at night to his home and family. It was from such conditions that the men and women came forth to lead the industry and government of the West. From such a home came Lincoln! What are the conditions to-day in the great lumber camps of the West and South? Let me describe one in which I worked. We slept in bunks four tiers deep, one rack on each side and two in the center of a big tent. When called for dinner, we washed our hands and faces, if the habit still lingered, at a trough of running water. Then lined

up in front of the hash tent, we waited for the bar to go down. In we rushed, each man grabbing whatever he could reach and then covering his plate with his hands, looked about to see if he had missed anything. At night, we slept in our clothes minus coat and shoes. We did this because our clothes wet with sweat protected us from the other inhabitants of our bunks. One night the tent leaked just above my bunk, and I got up. A light was shining in the foreman's cabin. I went over and found him wrestling with some accounts. I told him I was some shark at figures myself and asked if I might help him. He consented, and after I had straightened out his muddle, we lighted our pipes and had a talk. Some men from the nearby settlement had been at the camp that day asking for work. I asked this foreman why he did not hire these men. He said that the company preferred men like us that were shipped from the city. Pressed for the reason, he said laconically, "you fellows don't kick about the hours or the wages or the grub. When you get fired, you leave camp. If you get killed, the company don't have to pay."

Every man but two that I talked with in that camp seemed to be interested in just three things, whiskey, women, and the gamblers' trance. They were all waiting to get a stake large enough to have "a god time in the red light district of Chicago, Seattle or San Francisco.

Railroading and boating are very much the same. The surfacing of the tracks on the great railroads of this country is now done by homeless men shipped out from the great cities. The men in the boats on the great lakes belong, in the main, to the hopeless human waste of the casual labor group. Only the captain, the mates and the engineers have survived as a real craft. All the others are roustabouts, industrial human drift, half vagabond, half criminal. Fed on rancid food, sleeping in lousy forecastles, and working irregular hours they average one trip to a booze, or one booze to a trip just as you please to put it. You can find similar conditions at the foundation of the steel and iron industry. I have worked as a common laborer, wheeling in the yards at the South Chicago Steel Works. When I left my work at night, I went to sleep in bunks that were still warm from the man who had gone to take my place in the next shift. For seven days, these bunks were never cold. I was told that they had not been cold for nine months.

I hardly need speak of the conditions that prevail in the mining

districts. Every man who knows what is going on in our industrial world knows that this trial out in Idaho is not the trial only of three men charged with murder. These men may be guilty, but their struggle to get fair wages and fair hours for workers in the Colorado mines has put behind them an enthusiastic group of sympathizers who wish to defend them to the end. I do not know whether they are guilty or not, but I do know that it is an important sign of the times when the whole country can be stirred until the front pages of our great daily papers are devoted to a murder trial out in Idaho, and processions of men and women are marching the streets of Chicago and New York in protest against what they claim is a mine owners' conspiracy to hang men who have interfered with their profits and have forced better conditions in hours and wages upon the great mine owners of the West. I know this also. Had not the mine owners of Colorado shamefully violated the eight hour day law and prostituted the legislature and the courts, there would have been no Western Federation and no trial of Haywood out in Idaho to-day.

In the textile industries of this country, there are conditions so plainly anti-social that men and women all over the land have risen in protest and declared against the exploitation of child life in the cotton mills of the South and the glass factories of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. I need say little in this presence of the clothing trades, those ancient exploiters of men and women and children. It is generally known that the poorest immigrant class are the special prey of these industries. It does not seem so terrible when you don't know these people, but when you live next door to them, when you find that they are just about as human as the rest of us —then it is different. When you know the mothers and the children, even though they do speak a foreign tongue and are undeniably Dagos, Slavs, Huns, and Jews, still this seems hardly sufficient as a reason why they should be robbed and sweated from day to day.

Now a word regarding department stores. Many of them should have over the entrance doors for the girl employees "This is the way to the red light district." Then the great truth would be manifest to the entire community that the underpaid and overworked girls in these stores frequently finish their working life in the brothel. Some months ago, a low hotel in Chicago was closed by order of the Mayor. It was situated just across the street from

one of the great department stores. Part of the evidence on which this hotel was closed was that twenty-nine girls had been seen to pass from that store into this hotel during one noon hour.

Still you say "the farming class is yet sound and pure." Never were you more mistaken. The development of machinery in agriculture and the specialization in farming has abolished the class of agricultural common laborers that used to live upon the soil. The seasonal needs of the farm are now supplied by the homeless casual labor group of the great cities. Read any newspaper during the harvest season and note the cry for labor that comes from the farms. How long will that employment last? Six weeks at the most, and if you do not leave the locality as soon as the season is over, you will be "vagged" by the sheriff and made to work on the county roads. I know, for I have been there. When the farms of a country are put on an anti-social casual labor basis, it is time for men and women concerned with the moral issues of civilization to think and act.

Let us now give thought for a moment to industrial progress and consolidation. Both are necessary for the development of industry throughout the world, yet both are to-day often utterly inhuman. Can we not be as considerate in dealing with immortal souls as we are in dealing with dollars? Everywhere throughout industry, capital is protected. If a shop or a plant is closed down, it is charged against the output as so much in the cost of production. It is the same when the machinery breaks or is worn out. The average breakage and the average wear and tear of every machine has been computed and is distributed over the cost of the product for each part of the entire period of production.

But how is it with human lives? What about the man who has worked for twenty years as a typesetter and who is too old to learn a new trade when the linotype forces him out of a job. What of the wood carver of yesterday who is out of a job to-day because of a patent process of compressing sawdust, putty and clay? What about the man who has worked twelve years in a shop and has bought a home near his work and is slowly paying off the mortgage, when his shop is closed down without warning by industrial consolidation? What of the man who has lost his hand in an unprotected sticker, after fifteen years of faithful labor? None of these events trouble the stockholders of the companies employing these men. All these possibilities have been foreseen and charged up and

paid for by the consumers when the product was bought. But what of these workers? What of their jobs and their hands and legs by which they and their families live? What provision has been made in our industrial arrangements for abandoned and crippled and worn out human beings with immortal souls? There has been no provision. There have been half-hearted efforts here and there. There have been false and dishonest evasions of this issue in plenty. But real comprehensive grappling with its supreme demands, there has been none. Now this issue must be met. Up to this hour, the labor unions have done something, the universities a little and the church next to nothing. The labor unions have won some sort of fair wages, hours and working conditions wherever they have been strong. They have made a good fight against child labor, night work for women and unprotected machinery. Yet, at best they reach only a small part of the working world. And you say "the unions are brutal and violate the law and are led by unprincipled men." Yes, many times this is so. But the union men haven't any monopoly of these characteristics. The packers and mine owners and railroad magnates are brutal and lawless and unprincipled enough to deserve some of your condemnation. Further it should never be forgotten that these men are tempted only by boundless greed, while the workers fight for their homes and daily bread. In the last four years, the railroads of this country have killed 15,364 men and injured 219,495. We are very patient over this steady industrial slaughter, but if a union man slugs a "scab" who is seeking to take bread from his children's mouths, we make a great outcry. We don't seem to mind how the workers are poisoned and crippled and killed in smelter and mine and factory, yet, when in the blind helpless struggle of infuriated masses of men, someone is killed then we are very much outraged and demand the troops to enforce law and preserve order lest the foundations of the State crumble.

Our conscience has a way of going to sleep on the job and then of working overtime. I remember that during the great stock yards strike, the packers imported criminals and prostitutes from the purlieus of Cincinnati and St. Louis and held private prize fights in the yards to keep them amused after the day's work. These vicious and diseased persons worked over the meat that you and your families were to eat, yet the conscience of the country spoke not a single word of protest. Why was this true? How is

it possible that the people can be made to care so much at one time and so little at another? I want to tell you why, and I want you to remember this much, at least, of what I say tonight. *It is because of the industrial censorship of the press.* The great employers are the great advertisers and they can make or break a newspaper. This skillful industrial censorship creates false moral resentment or enthusiasm at will, and thus the press of the country is used to play upon and mislead the moral forces of the nation. This is possibly the supreme sin of the age. Nor is this industrial censorship confined to the press. It is over the pulpit and the best clubs and the most select society. Let one dare to tell the truth regarding industrial conditions in any of these groups and he is outlawed, he is spoken of as "that anarchist," "that socialist," "that fellow to whom something should happen over night to keep him quiet."

So you do not get the truth in the newspapers. They cannot publish it. Why, here the other day Mrs. Kelley in a talk on protection for women workers remarked that labor unions could not accomplish everything. This remark was distorted into a declaration against labor unions. It was headlined and elaborate comments made upon a false statement of her passing remark. Forty people heard what Mrs. Kelley said and forty thousand read what the paper printed that she had said. Now this is part of the way your opinions have been made up regarding labor unions, and this is the chief reason why the greatest wrongs in the working world are tolerated. Had you known the truth all the time, your moral indignation would have swept away many an ancient injustice. Now you must know this truth. You must know the conditions and consequences in the working world.

A great book has recently been published under the title "The New Basis of Civilization." When you have digested its contents you have the simple yet revolutionary formula of Manhood before Profits. The dollar must give way to the home. Dividends must be second to childhood and womanhood. This is the new basis of civilization and all industry must conform to this standard. Both the State and the Church must sit in judgment. Unfair working conditions, dishonest competition and dividends spotted with the blood of the innocents must be condemned and outlawed. All men engaged in honest industry must help to stamp out anti-social competition in every form. They must do this in self-preservation, if

from no nobler motive. Either honest private business must wipe out dishonest private business, or the people will rise and wipe out both. You can take your choice, but you have got to choose. To sit idle is to rest on a volcano while underneath the fire burns. Those four hundred thousand votes cast for Debs meant something. There must be a new purging of the Temple of the Lord. Insanitary tenement, child labor and all overtime and underpay thieves of every place and name must be made to feel the censure of Jesus and the condemnation of the State.

The church must find tongue in this great contest. It must take sides for those highest concerns of civilization—childhood and the home. Either this or the church will cease to influence the moral forces of the world. In that early hour of its poverty and purity and power when the church was persecuted among men, it preached a social gospel. To find out the social conscience of the early church it is only necessary to discover why Rome persecuted the Christians. It was not because of their theological dogmas nor their forms of worship. Rome gave free place and protection to all the differing deities of the pagan world. But the early church taught equality of opportunity for all members of the Christian commonwealth both temporal and spiritual. It taught the doctrine of all for each and each for all. It proclaimed the sanctity of childhood and the sacredness of the home. And for these economic and social doctrines, it suffered untold persecutions and unnumbered martyrdoms. Has the church forgotten its great mission? Has it become content with splendid tabernacles and well dressed and liberal congregations. Has it forgotten that "the tabernacle of God is with men" and that its mission is to seek and save the poor and helpless ones of the earth? Has it lost the heavenly vision of the temporal kingdom of God? Does the church teach its rich men and women that all their wealth and privileges are part of the unpaid labor of the world? Is the truth sent home that little children with weary eyes have tied threads all day in the mills, that women with worn fingers have sewed all day in the sweatshops, and that men have grown grey toiling in the bowels of the earth; so that men and women of the privileged class may have bright eyes, soft hands, education and leisure? Does the church teach its privileged members that they will go to the grave social paupers and moral bankrupts if they do not give back in

service to the least of these His brethren, the last full measure of their power?

The State must help in this contest for fair working conditions. If the power of the State can be invoked to make new markets and protect trade, may it not be used to maintain old moralities and protect the home? I believe that the people of this country will answer yes. Yes by all the might and power of an awakened social conscience directing the governing forces of City, State and Nation to an inquiry and a contest if you please with every unfair and dishonest form of industry in the land.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES IN THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

WM. D. WASHBURN, JR., MINNEAPOLIS.

It is now nearly a hundred years since Napoleon Bonaparte, returning from Moscow with defeated and shattered legions, stated that within a century Europe would be *Republican* or *Cossack*.

Today we can fairly say, that the world is to be Republican and not Cossack. We can now predict that our own Germanic or Anglo-Saxon culture is to dominate the civilized portion of the globe for generations yet to come.

The nineteenth century meant that government is to be more democratic and not more despotic. It meant the right of the individual to a fair opportunity in life; the sanctity of the home; the freedom of the intellectual and moral life; the feeling of responsibility towards one's fellows and the brotherhood of man that underlies the teaching of Christian thought. It meant the triumph of the Christian ideals of Charity and Fellowship over the bleak pagan philosophies of individual selfishness. All these things are now inbred in our own mental bone and fibre and have come to stay in the world at large.

Our own moral position in relation to other world powers and world movements has also radically changed. The United States has passed from her position of fat and obscure prosperity into an inheritance of heavy and harassing responsibility to a world of yellow races whose habits of thought are totally opposed to our own type of life. Regret it as we may, we must follow the path that the manifest destiny of nations has laid beneath our feet. We shall

never leave the East. We have now fixed and settled duties toward the great world without. With these duties follow heavy obligations that a civilized power owes to semi-barbarous people with whom our world life will inevitably bring us in contact.

The greatest of these duties is the preservation of our own type of culture and civilization.

PRESERVATION OF THE MORAL TYPE.

For now three centuries our race has thriven here in the safe retreat of a new continent, and in the inheritance of the best that a thousand years of English freedom has given us. Safe and apart from the exhausting struggles that have impoverished the European continent; rich in material resources; still unscathed by the blight of physical and moral degeneracy; still a mere infant in the possibilities of our physical, mental and moral growth—the United States is today the most powerful single aggregation of people of a common type and language, that the world has ever seen. Today we have eighty millions people. In twenty years we will have a hundred million people. In fifty years we may have two hundred million.

We have become one of the greatest moral influences in the world in defense of good government and the rights of the individual man. In a generation, we shall be the dominating commanding influence. Call this a national cross, or call it a national crown, these great world duties are as inevitable and are as certain as the swell and ebb of to-morrow's tide.

Our first duty should be to look to the future purity of our own race and type. We must see that this not only does not deteriorate, but that it advances to a higher moral and spiritual perfection. We should see to it that every generation is stronger, better and purer, physically, morally and spiritually. Those who follow us a generation hence should not only be our equals. They should be our superiors in every way.

THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

One may say that a particularly heavy duty falls upon the people living in the Mississippi Valley, some day to be the richest and most densely populated region in the world. Here will be amalgamated

from the people of all the world the future race that is to decide definitely whether government for the people and by the people is to maintain itself upon the earth. Here will be decided the great social and economic questions that our rapidly advancing evolution presents for solution. Here will be moulded our final type of man and citizen.

Throughout this area there is a certain similarity of conditions, of type and of character. It should be not alone the duty but the pleasure of every thoughtful citizen, to bend his energies toward the betterment of the physical and economic conditions that surround us all.

Few are those who preside at the birth of empires and civilizations. In our search for wealth and culture, we should not forget that we have in our hands the making of a race, that will affect the future of a world.

DISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH AND POPULATION.

The time has long past since sane men believed in the damnable theory, that man was made to mourn. Today most grown people believe that man was made to live his life sweetly and beautifully to the very fullness thereof. The world was made for man, to be a place of pleasure and beauty and not a prison house of pain.

Because there has always been great poverty and wretchedness, there is no reason why there always should be.

To the most unthinking man, it is apparent that there is more than enough produced upon the earth, so that every man should have sufficient to eat and to drink, and the wherewithal to clothe and shelter himself and his wife and his little ones. That there is poverty and suffering and consequent pauperism and crime, is not due to the providence of God, but to the improvidence and selfishness of man. No one any longer believes that all men are born free and equal, because it is manifest that they are not. All, however, should have equal opportunities to meet the duties of their life under equal and exact laws. This is all that government or man can do in any case. Nevertheless, man may in a great measure mitigate and relieve the suffering and poverty of the unfit. Above all he should strive to make a fair division of the products of industry for the general welfare of the whole.

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

In the Mississippi Valley we do not yet feel to its full extent the pressure of the economic law, which accumulates the wealth of the average many in the hands of the clever few. Neither have we suffered greatly from the congestion of the weaker industrial units in large cities outside of such centers as Chicago.

The country is very thinly populated. Minnesota, as large as the British Isles which have a population of fifty millions, has a little over two million people. She has two counties each the size of Connecticut, and the two together have a population of forty thousand. Each of these counties could sustain a population of a quarter of a million and still have vacant land. The same relative underpopulation prevails in most of the northwestern states.

The proper distribution of people upon the land should be one of the great problems borne in mind by all who are engaged in charitable and correctional work. At present the population tends to gather in the cities, as wages are high, life is more pleasant and the people revolt against the loneliness of life upon the farm. If the times become less prosperous, much of the city population will be driven back upon the land. This movement should be encouraged. Farm-life will undoubtedly become more popular as the means of transportation are improved, good roads are built and the telephone and free delivery service become more common. A proper balance between country and city population makes for the best welfare of our national life.

EQUAL DIVISION OF RESOURCES.

It is also very manifest that the future of our race in the Mississippi Valley is to depend largely upon a more equitable division of resources.

Many centuries ago the natural resources of European countries passed into the hands of a few. Since that time the vast majority of the European people have lived as wage earners in cities or as mere renters upon the lands of the rich.

In free England of to-day half a million people starve in the slums of London, while but an hour away one may walk through tracts withdrawn from agriculture and set aside for the habitat of the pheasant and the deer. Such a thing should never happen in the United States. We should see to it that the resources which

remain in the hands of the government should be kept for the benefit of all the people, and should not be exploited for the benefit of the few. The land laws which permit individuals and corporations to seize upon large areas of the national domain at a merely nominal figure, should be repealed, so that our descendants may occupy the land as owners and not as dependents.

Today the Mississippi Valley has millions of acres of rich land ready for the plow. Hundreds of thousands of landless men stagnate in eastern cities lowering the standard of living and wages, with resulting poverty, incompetence and crime. It should be the work of the statesmen to place the landless man upon the great vacant areas.

IMMIGRATION.

The subject of immigration is one of paramount importance to the people of the Mississippi Valley. A generation ago the larger part of the valley was comparatively unoccupied. All good people of whatever race or country were invited to our midst and welcomed as citizens of this republic.

Today, however, the conditions are radically changed. Instead of coming into the country districts and properly distributing themselves over the land, the larger portion of the immigration accumulates in the eastern states or in the large cities of the Mississippi Valley.

Of the million immigrants arriving last year, three-quarters of them still linger near the Atlantic coast. There they tend to form foreign colonies, speaking their own languages and retaining the habits and ideals of alien civilization. Every effort should be made to distribute these newcomers where they can be brought directly in contact with our own people and thus be thoroughly amalgamated in our national life.

While the spirit of brotherhood should lead us to throw our gates open to all the afflicted of the world, self preservation is the first law of nature. Those whose fathers have upbuilt this land and carved it from the wilderness, have definite and distinct rights as to the sort of people they should permit to become citizens of the United States. We should freely welcome all those who will assimilate our own theory of government and our own ideals of life. We should certainly exclude those whose antecedents and conditions are such, that they are bound to deteriorate the type and to lower the general standard of our people.

WOMAN'S POSITION IN INDUSTRY.

Among the many rapid social changes of recent years the change in the position of woman is one of the most notable. A generation ago the home was still the original unit of society. Child birth was considered the crown of womanhood. The moral and spiritual supremacy of woman was still acknowledged, the best things in our civilization were attributed largely to the unique position of woman in American life. To-day, however, woman is thrown into direct physical and mental competition with the coarser and more brutal sex. She can not compete in this struggle without decided changes in mentality and character that must make great alterations in the future of our type. No one can blame woman for demanding a free entrance into the best mental and moral life. The merely physical competition, however, takes her from the proper sphere to which her physique and sex has assigned her. Her departure from the home and her entrance into the industrial machinery disturbs the whole equilibrium of society, and is a matter that must cause profound apprehension for her future.

Now that women have received the right and privilege to enter the desperate physical struggle for a livelihood, it should be one of the aims of charitable and correctional associations to see that she is properly safeguarded in this unequal and brutal strife. We should look carefully into laws to protect young girls in the department stores, to reduce the hours of labor and to improve the physical conditions of plants employing women.

Some practical means should be devised to improve the moral and physical tone of thousands of young girls who are employed in industrial plants in the day-time, and wander about loose and unguarded at night. This is manifestly the real duty of the home. Parents, however, seem neglectful of this plain duty, and it has perforce fallen back upon the state.

THE PROBLEM OF THE CHILD.

The proper safeguarding of children is the cornerstone of any scheme to improve the conditions of the race. The type of most people of mature age is already set for better or for worse. It is to the improvement of the child that we must look for the regeneration of the type.

The character of a child is the product of inheritance and environment. The parent cannot escape the responsibility for his

education among wholesome, physical and moral surroundings. We can care for mature offenders and incompetents by various forms of correctional discipline. For the children we must secure pure air, good food, cold baths and clean surroundings.

Boys who are well bathed and well fed and exercised in congenial work are not insulting women on the street corner. Little girls whose mothers set them a wholesome example and are worthy of the name, are not chasing about in the dance halls and wine-rooms at night.

A sad child is the saddest object in our civilization. A degenerate or criminal child grown to manhood without an attempt to reform him is a reflection upon our civilization. While we admit the inheritance of delinquent and criminal instincts, these are the rare exceptions and not the rule.

The failure of parents to either set a good example or to take reasonable care of the moral life of the child, is one of the most discouraging features of modern life. Today there are thousands of boys and girls who are simply unmoral and not immoral. They have apparently never received moral or spiritual instruction and turn without knowledge or even fault to the easy evil, rather than to the difficult good. This is very noticeable among young girls in the cities, who fall into evil ways with apparently no idea of wrong, and no knowledge that there are better things.

DECAY OF RELIGIOUS TRAINING.

While this apparent moral degeneration may be due to some obscure causes, involved in our changing social conditions, it may be also largely attributed to the waning of spiritual and religious life among large classes of our people. Since the mutilation of the old orthodox creed a generation ago, the church appears to have somewhat lost its hold upon the moral nature of the people. Many children are brought up with little instruction either as to religion or morals.

It is an open question, what is to become of the succeeding generations upon whom the church has lost its hold? Is it possible that we cannot accept ethics except through the coercion of the church? Today thousands of good people are living on the tag ends of Puritan inheritance. It is a question what will become of their children when this inherited ethics has run to seed.

It would seem that any religion is better than no religion as affecting the morals of mankind. If the Protestant and liberal creeds cannot maintain ethics in the coming generation, were it not far better that the people flock back to the old mother Catholic church which has a long established reputation as a good doctor for sick and diseased souls?

Much good work has been done in the Northwest in connection with the redemption and care of delinquent children and women. plain methods of common sense have proved so successful, that it would seem that great results should follow the systematic introduction of home settlements, children's courts and probationary officers.

RESUME OF SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

Notwithstanding the various failings in our social conditions, one may say that the average type of life in the Mississippi Valley is the highest that the world has yet produced in any such large section or community upon the world's surface.

In the Northwestern states there is practically no professional criminal class. Neither is there any large class of physically and morally debilitated people such as are represented by many of the mill and industrial workers in the Atlantic states. Our delinquents are occasional and sporadic. Much of our poverty and crime is due to our generous impulse to absorb inferior foreign population whose deficients crowd our hospitals, workhouses and prisons. Much of our insanity is due to the great change of conditions which meet foreign people whose roots are suddenly torn from their own soil. Where we have native poverty or crime it is largely due to bad education, or the neglect of parents.

In summing up, one may say that the children are better fed and housed. They have better educational advantages than those of thirty years ago.

Working men and women work fewer hours, at higher wages, and under better sanitary conditions. Where laboring men and women, who can draw wages, fall into poverty and crime it is due largely to moral and mental degeneration which apparently follow our great prosperity.

As a whole the general tone of life is higher than it was thirty years ago when the old settlers were encountering the great phys-

ical disadvantage of a new country, and were subjected to the demoralizing isolation of frontier life.

Since the Spanish war there has been a distinct revival in patriotism and national sentiment which has stimulated and vitalized the efforts of men in all walks of life.

Seldom has the world shown such a profitable open field for the improvement of the type of man as does the Mississippi Valley to-day. With exhaustless material resources, unlimited lands, and a population that is not yet physically or morally impaired it will be our own shame, here in the Mississippi Valley, if we do not produce a better physical, mental and moral type of manhood as the years roll by.

THE STANDARD OF LIVING AND THE PROBLEM OF DEPENDENCY.

REV. J. A. RYAN, D. D., PROFESSOR OF ETHICS AND ECONOMICS AT ST. PAUL'S SEMINARY, ST. PAUL, MINN.

It is a commonplace of modern philanthropy that the problem of dependency ought to be attacked in its causes. It is equally well recognized that the causes are partly social. Intelligent students and workers in the field of charitable effort no longer impute all pauperism and poverty to deficiencies in the individual. They realize that a considerable proportion of dependency occurs despite the utmost efforts of the individual, despite the absence of unusual sickness, accidents or other misfortunes, despite the presence of individual capacities that are fully up to the average. The true cause of such dependency is to be sought in insufficient incomes and insufficient standards of living.

A minimum normal standard of living may be roughly defined as the smallest amount of necessaries and conveniences that is compatible with right and reasonable life. The phrase "right and reasonable life," is indeed vague, and may convey to many minds an exaggerated estimate. For the prevailing ideal of life, the prevailing conception of wider and fuller life, points to the indefinitely increasing satisfaction of indefinitely increasing material wants. In the words of Friedrich Lange, the modern view is that a man is all the happier the more wants he has, provided only he has the means of satisfying them. Obviously this theory, this ideal of life,

is false. As a general proposition its opposite is more nearly true, namely, that the fewer the material wants that we allow ourselves to satisfy, the nobler, happier, more reasonable, and more useful will be our lives. The indefinite satisfaction of indefinite material wants, spells enervating luxury for the individual, and decadence, physical, mental and moral, for the nation. While thus indicating my dissent from the current conception of welfare and the prevailing worship of material satisfaction, I would no less emphatically give expression to the conviction that there is a certain minimum of goods, material and non-material, without which men cannot live decent lives nor attain to that degree of development that befits creatures made in the image and likeness of God. And I admit, nay, insist that this minimum standard includes some things that are only conventionally necessary. These conventional goods must be had because they are essential to that self respect which is an indispensable element of even the poorest and lowliest life that can be called decent and reasonable. So highly prized are these goods that most self-respecting men will procure them at the cost of such absolute necessities as efficiency, health, and morality. For example, they will deprive themselves of some of the food and clothing that is necessary for physical well-being, rather than go without becoming apparel and becoming household furnishing. On the other hand, utter indifference to those goods that have to do chiefly with appearances, indicates character defects which are an obstacle to right living.

What is the content of this minimum standard? In the matter of housing, health and decency demand that each family should have five, or at the very least, four rooms. Three of these will be bedrooms. The dwelling should be furnished in such a way as to provide elementary comfort, and to satisfy in some little degree the desire for beauty and refinement. The supply of food should be sufficient and of such quality as to maintain health and industrial efficiency. The clothing should be adequate not only to the requirements of health and rudimentary comfort, but to those of decent social intercourse and recreation. It ought not to be necessary for any of the children to become continuous wage-earners before they have reached the age of sixteen. The wife ought not to be a wage worker at any period of her conjugal existence. There ought to be provision for sickness, accidents, unemployment, and old age. An elementary education for all the children, a regular

supply of reading matter, membership in a church and in some other organizations, and as much recreation and amusement as are adequate to health and moderate contentment—must all find a place in a normal standard of living.

To state the money-cost of these requisites of minimum reasonable living, is obviously no easy task, even for a single locality. About one year ago, several experienced social workers made careful and minute investigations to ascertain the lowest sum upon which a man and wife and three children could live decently in the city of New York. All their estimates were within a few dollars of $950 per annum. Some three years ago Dr. Devine placed the cost at $600, but he did not consider all the items of expenditure in detail; besides, he had in view the last decade, when prices were much lower than last year. John Mitchell gave the same estimate, but restricted it to cities of between 5,000 and 100,000 inhabitants. Basing my conclusions on the results of an investigation made by the U. S. Bureau of Labor into the cost of living of more than two thousand families in the cotton industry in the year 1891, and having in mind a family consisting of husband and wife and four or five children, I have in another place written as follows: "Anything less than $600 per year is not a decent livelihood in any of the cities of the United States; this sum is probably a decent livelihood in the cities of the Southern States in which fuel, clothing, food, and some other items of expenditure are cheaper than in the North; it is possibly a decent livelihood in the moderately sized cities of the West, North, and East; in some of the largest cities of the last-named regions it is certainly not a decent livelihood."

Assuming that the minimum cost of a normal standard of living has been ascertained, of what use is this knowledge to charity workers? In the first place, it tells them the amount of relief that ought to be given in particular cases. The dependent family ought to get sufficient aid to enable its members to live according to the normal standard. If they are helped by a somewhat smaller degree than this, they can no doubt continue to exist, but existence will be so difficult, so depressing, as to be unworthy of human beings, and wanting in the essential conditions of permanent improvement. In the majority of cases the result will probably be that the insufficiently assisted persons will remain at an insufficient level of living, and furthermore that the amount of assistance will in

the long run have to be greater than it would have been had the normal standard of living been adopted as the measure of the original relief. Much greater, too, will be the probable social cost in the form of delinquency.

Should relief be regularly given to all families whose incomes are below the normal standard? This question is well answered by Dr. Devine: "An attempt to supplement ordinary wages by charitable relief would have the effect of continuing an inadequate scale of wages. It is only when individuals or individual families, for personal or accidental or temporary reasons, fall below the standard that charitable assistance can effectually intervene." To supply regularly the deficiency in compensation to all the able bodied heads of families who are at present underpaid, would be a twofold mistake. It would deprive the worker of a powerful incentive to struggle for better conditions, and encourage the employer to continue to pay insufficient wages.

A definite idea of the lowest annual income upon which a family can live decently, will also enable those interested in charitable assistance to have some notion of the number of persons who are below this standard. A painstaking study of the partial statistics contained in the last two censuses of the United States and in various reports of the national and state bureaus of labor, has seemed to me to warrant the conclusion that at least 60 per cent of the adult males employed in urban occupations in American are receiving less than $600 annually. Since a large proportion of these are unmarried, the estimate just noted does not imply that 60 per cent of the *families* in our towns and cities have an income of less than $600 and are consequently below the plane of decent living. Nevertheless a very large proportion of them are in that condition. Practically all of these families—or some portion of each of them—are liable sooner or later to become dependent upon outside assistance. Moreover, so long as unmarried male adults remain underpaid, they either will not marry, in which case they are leading abnormal lives and thus contributing to the sum total of dependency and delinquency, or as many of them as do marry will increase the number of families whose standard of living is below the normal. Knowledge of these facts will make possible a more definite and accurate estimate of the number of persons who are likely to become objects of charitable assistance, and also of the number of the so-called "deserving poor." And perhaps it will

dispose some of us to realize that the proportion of dependents whose dependency results from social causes, is somewhat larger than we have hitherto believed.

Finally, a definite concept of the minimum normal standard of living, together with an approximate estimate of the number of persons who fail to reach that standard, are indispensable to any intelligent and effective effort to ascertain and abolish the principal social cause of dependency. I refer, of course, to insufficient wages. Possessing this knowledge, the members of charity organizations, and all who speak or write on the problem of dependency, can accomplish a splendid work of education. They can bring home to well-meaning but thoughtless employers some idea of the amount of poverty that is due to their failure to pay living wages; they can help very materially to bring upon employers who are not well meaning the condemnation of public opinion; they can contribute to the enactment of laws which directly or indirectly will enforce an adequate standard of compensation and of living; they can educate the whole public into a more accurate conception of the proportion of poverty that is due to social causes, and out of the complacent notion, which is still all too common, that the poverty stricken have only themselves to blame. They can, moreover, reduce the number of dependents by promoting the work of the consumers' league, by extending the influence of the union label into circles where it is now unknown or misunderstood, and in general by co-operating with every organization and every movement that aims at raising the standard of living among those whose standards are now too low. In this connection I cannot refrain from calling attention to the gratifying fact that at the last meeting of the American Economic Association, five of the ten speakers who discussed the question "Upon What Principles Should an Arbitration Board Fix Wages?" declared that the first principle of the award should be, compensation sufficient to provide a decent standard of living. The present-day masters of the "dismal science" are bringing their studies into touch with life and humanity. If the students and workers in the field of organized charity are to be similarly progressive, if they are to utilize the full measure of their splendid opportunities, they must be equipped and eager to co-operate in many ways, in ways that heretofore perhaps have been regarded as outside of their province, with all the social forces that are capable of lessening or softening the social causes of dependency.

The question is frequently asked: "Can poverty be entirely abolished?" The usual answer is a negative one, and rightly so, if reference be had to poverty of all kinds. Our knowledge of the frailty of human nature and of the uncertainty of human life, assures us that there will always be poverty resulting from individual incapacity, misconduct, and misfortune. But in this marvelously rich country of ours, a resourceful and humane people ought to be equal to the task of abolishing all the poverty that is due either immediately or remotely to causes that are dominantly social. This possibility is sometimes denied on the ground that it runs counter to the words of Christ: "The poor you have always with you." Such a strained application of this text occurs only to those who are wanting in knowledge, reflection or sincerity. The poor who have been pauperized by social injustice and uncharity need not be with us always; and one of the most effective means of hastening the day when they shall not be with us is by striving for the universalization of minimum normal standards of compensation and of living.

RELATIONS EXISTING BETWEEN DEFECTIVE CHARACTER AND DEPENDENCE.

W. H. McCLAIN, GENERAL MANAGER ST. LOUIS PROVIDENT ASSOCIATION.

In accepting the chairman's invitation to speak on the relation between defective character and dependence, I do not hope to add much to the classification of causes of poverty arranged by Dr. Lee K. Frankel, or throw new light on a subject where the ground has been so well covered by those eminent sociological scholars, Warner, Henderson, Brackett and Devine.

I refer you to the writings of these gentlemen and hope that a restatement of what has already been said by others may be in a degree helpful to some of the members of this conference.

The most interesting and at the same time the most difficult problem connected with the analysis of the causes of dependence, is to determine the primary cause of destitution.

The causes of poverty are usually complex, so complex that they are generally incapable of analysis. Again, they are immediate or remote, and often the more remote causes are the more important. It requires great experience and intelligence on the part

of workers in charity to discover, even approximately, the fundamental reason why a certain person has come to dependence.

Many of us have been content to accept the statement of the humble Galilean who more than nineteen centuries ago said, "Ye have the poor always with you," and believing this statement, coming as it did from One who spake as never man spake, we have accepted the saying and never stopped to ascertain whether the number of the poor was definitely fixed or if we might not be able to do something to lessen that number, and make the succeeding generations better and better. Believing as many of us did that our part of the burden was to provide for those less fortunate than ourselves, we did not stop to inquire as to the defects in the character of the individual which made him poor and kept him dependent.

Our eyes are no longer holden, and while we accept the statement, "Ye have the poor always with you," we also feel that we can no longer escape the obligation which has been placed upon us as lovers of mankind to exert our energies in trying to correct the defects in character of the individual and thus afford more favorable conditions for our fellow-men.

"In our divisions and sub-divisions of defective characters we have considered the objective and subjective, direct and indirect; we have classified and catalogued our poor until they appear as objects almost distinct from ourselves. We have the ignorant and shiftless, the drunkard, the improvident and we have almost lost sight of the fact that the condition of these classes is simply due to other and remote causes."

Drink may be attributed to bad housing, or poor cooking; shiftlessness, to inability to find proper work; improvidence, to the impossibility of struggling against the existing industrial conditions; and immorality may be traced to environment. After all, we have to admit that the poor man is in no way inherently worse than his neighbor. In the majority of cases, he is simply a victim of circumstances.

Henry George and his followers found the cause of dependency in the injustice of taxation.

Ministers of the gospel brand sin as the only cause of poverty and wretchedness. They did, and some still do, construe St. Matthews' "Seek ye first the Kingdom of God and His righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you," as, if not a justifica-

tion, at least as an extenuation of a lack of foresight, of energy, and of thrift. If sin did not find place in the heart, wretchedness and dissipation would not be known.

The temperance reformer specializes on the general plea of the preacher and says that the sin of intemperance is responsible for all our woe. That drink kills the man and curses the home.

We will, I think, all agree that each of these explanations of dependence is to be reckoned with.

In a report of the New York Society for Suppression of Pauperism for the year of 1818 I find a study of the relation between defective character and dependence. In this report the classification of causes places ignorance at the head, followed by idleness, intemperance, improvidence and immorality. Many suggestions have been made for the improvement of character since that day, but the suggestion as set out in that report,

"Let the moral sense be awakened and the moral influence be established in the minds of the improvident, the unfortunate and the depraved, inspire them with self respect and encourage their industry and economy; in short, enlighten their minds and teach them to take care of themselves."

comes very near to being as apt and appropriate today as it was then. At the present time these suggestions are not unfamiliar to many engaged in charity work, but I can not see that we have improved very much upon them in the last hundred years. We are beginning to realize that the vices of our poor are not necessarily transmissive or hereditary. We are beginning to acknowledge the kinship of mankind, and while we grant the right of the stronger to succeed we admit that the weaker have rights and privileges, not the least of which is the demand for environment which permits of development and not decay.

We will also agree that the cause of dependence varies with individuals and with groups of persons, and it would be impossible to mention any one cause which would account for the dependence of all groups of the indigent. Further, no cause lies wholly within the dependent man. Every dependent is what he is by virtue of inherited bodily and mental powers and disposition, plus all the influences which have acted upon him from birth and before birth, plus all his acquired habits.

The more we observe people in dependence, the more complex

and indefinable the cause seems to be. Almost any cause which one hits upon is found to be at least partly an effect, with other intricate and tangled up causes lying still farther in the background.

With a full sense of the extreme difficulty met in attempting to show the relation between defective character and dependence, we may venture to state that INEFFICIENCY, either voluntary or involuntary, may be stated as a cause, if not the chief cause, of dependence. By involuntary inefficiency is meant the inefficiency due to environment, heredity and unjust social conditions. A lack of will force in some instances and will power in others constitute in a majority of cases the subjective cause of dependence.

Another defect in character, the sire of many evils, is INTEMPERANCE. Not only has the habit cursed numberless individuals, but the places created and licensed by public authority for its indulgence have become a menace to society and the storm center of municipal and political corruption.

The amount of evil to be charged to intemperance is immeasurable. There is full justification for all efforts that are made to reduce its ravages. The awfulness of its curse will excuse the consuming zeal on the part of temperance reformers. But a little careful discrimination will clarify this subject. It is the opinion of many who have given special study to the subject that *crime* rather than *dependence* is the direct result of intemperance. Possibly this makes the picture darker for drink. In our effort to find out the causes of individual degeneration we are persuaded that drink leads to crime rather than poverty—so far as these two can be separated. It has been well stated by those who are competent to speak, that if every saloon, distillery and brewery were wiped out of existence we would still have the poor with us.

Drunkenness makes itself felt in the incomplete development of offspring, in the moral obtuseness of its subjects, in the frequency of imbecility and idiocy. The appetite for strong drink acts to perpetuate its kind.

The combination of incompetence, short-sightedness and instability which is ordinarily described by the word IMPROVIDENCE, is no doubt immediately responsible for a very large percentage of dependence, but no sooner do we begin to settle down to the acceptance of improvidence as one of the important factors in dependence, than we realize that improvidence and short-sightedness and instability may all be results of a lack of proper educa-

tion and early training, and when we fall back upon a lack of early training, as the cause, we immediately find a hundred other causes which account for the lack of early training.

Any paper treating on the relation existing between defective character and dependence would be incomplete without bringing into the classification SHIFTLESSNESS, and by that I mean that defect in character which leads both men and women to be careless in performing duties which they assume. How often are we told in our investigations of special cases that "my husband had work, but he failed to hold his job?" or "I had a place last week but only worked two days?"

There are so many cases in which employment is found for those who seek material aid where the applicant returns the next week asking again for help, saying that he did not like the kind of work secured for him. They are willing to let you secure another position for them and just as ready to surrender it the following week. As far as you can judge, they have no care other than to get a dollar or two to cover immediate pressing needs.

Next to shiftlessness as the cause of personal incapacity, weakness, and degeneration—or according to many before it—must be placed IMMORALITY in its various forms. According to Warner, sexual immorality is more prevalent than intemperance, and progressively reduces the efficiency of the workmen. It has been given first place among the forces that are destroying the Jukes, the Ishmaels and the Rooneys, the great types of degenerate families that have been studied in this country. It should probably be given first place in the catalogue of personal damnation.

Another phase of defective character affecting dependence is IGNORANCE. This was placed by the New York society previously referred to as the chief cause of dependence. Disease is usually the result of ignorance of nature's law. It is a startling fact that nearly one-fourth of all children die within the first year. It is a slaughter of the innocents, and ignorance is the executioner. Young parents know nothing of the proper care of children. They sacrifice their first-born to get the experience to care for the next, and its blood cries out to curse society for not removing this ignorance before placing the stamp of legal right upon the death-resulting union.

Sickness is a cause of dependence, but what are its causes aside from those which can not be anticipated or averted; what about

the numerous instances where it has been brought on by agencies over which the dependent could and should exercise control?

I have heard many hundreds of appeals for aid and the pitiful plaints of sad disappointment in all their varieties which focus in the office of a charity organization. There, too, as an interested observer, I have studied these concrete examples of distress and, like Job of old, tried to search out "the cause which I knew not."

It has been an endless procession and it is still moving day after day through this land of ours. The searching out of causes has been a constant and interesting study. The facts that I have read, the theories I have studied, the counsel I have taken from friends have been enlightening, but I have found after all that there has been no such helpful teacher for me, as the actual contact with those whose experience has come too late to be of service and who have failed to provide against the evil day.

Out of all the tales of woe I have heard and the pictures of distress I have seen, there seems to loom up with horrid front one composite picture of that home destroyer—Ignorance. Ignorance so profuse and expressive that the multiude never know at the parting of the ways which road to take and so stray unguarded into the impassable thickets that border upon life's highway.

Ignorant of the fundamental principles of right living, ignorant of their rights, their wrongs and their privileges; ignorant of the relation between cause and effect, ignorant of national and civil laws, ignorant of the laws of health and physical development, without foresight, or insight, they are the prey of superstition and the victims of greed.

This is the road to inevitable poverty—poverty of the soul, of body, of mind and of pocket, and many there be that walk therein. The orphan, the widow, the drunkard, the hobo and the tattered and aged imbecile, all struggle over this rugged way down to dependence.

It takes but little effort to trace back existing conditions of distress to their germ in ignorance. From it has developed sickness, or drunkenness, cruelty or neglect. It has unfitted its victims for intelligent endeavor. Without character and almost without motive, they slide down the scale of humanity into oblivion.

One of the most difficult predisposing causes of dependence to be

overcome is what may be called STUPIDITY. Not laziness, or idleness, but that lack of practical judgment that manifests itself now in action or postponement, now in an unwise purchase, whether in extravagance or in a choice of inferior goods, or in an unwise economy of strength or of means. Upon this stupidity of business or administrative sense, bargain days and bargain counters thrive. Upon this lack of restraint that uses up the wages before they are earned, instalment houses and loan sharks largely depend. This shortcoming is as difficult to describe as it is to overcome. Before it the friendly visitor feels his weakness. Not criminal, not vicious, but inability to appreciate values. "Against stupidity the gods themselves are powerless."

Notwithstanding the difficulty in making classifications, I recapitulate the statements made in this brief paper, leaving it to your judgment to arrange them in the order of their importance. I suggest the following as being the chief of these defects which bring about the relations between defective character and dependency.

1. Inefficiency.
2. Intemperance.
3. Improvidence.
4. Shiftlessness.
5. Immorality.
6. Ignorance.
7. Stupidity.

After having made an analysis of the foregoing statement of the causes of dependence resulting from defective character in accordance with a general knowledge of the subject, I concluded to make a special test of its accuracy by study of the work done by the St. Louis Provident Association during the first six months of our fiscal year.

A careful reading of one thousand cases taken promiscuously from our files, which is approximately two-thirds of the whole number of cases handled during the first six months of the year, showed that in 832 cases, or 82.2 per cent., the causes of dependency were not due to defective character. One hundred and seventy-eight cases, or 17.8 per cent. of the whole number examined, showed defective character to be the cause of dependence. These 178 cases were classified under the seven heads before mentioned on a percentage basis, as follows:

Intemperance	22.4%
Inefficiency	21.3%
Improvidence	15.7%
Shiftlessness	14. %
Immorality	12.9%
Stupidity	7.8%
Ignorance	5.9%

Now what has been learned? Just what was stated at the outset. The extreme difficulty, if not the impossibility, of determining the real cause or causes of dependence.

The order of the classifications arranged from a general knowledge of the subject was materially changed by the examination of one thousand cases from the files of the Provident Association, and I am confident that a different result would be obtained by case counting at different seasons of the year, or in other sections of the country.

It may be stated, however, when we begin the study of the causes of dependence resulting from defective character, that we find inefficiency, intemperance, improvidence and shiftlessness near the head of the list, but it may also be stated that any one of these causes may be the underlying cause of any or all of the others.

In the table prepared by the New York Society in 1818, and also in the table prepared by Dr. Lee K. Frankel, ignorance is placed at the head of the column; in the table just submitted ignorance is placed at the foot of the column, 5.9 per cent. of the cases examined, but who among us can say that ignorance, after all, may not be the cause of inefficiency, intemperance, improvidence or any of the other enumerated causes?*

May we conclude, therefore, that whatever the cause of dependence, the relation of the dependent to society may be changed for the better by changing his location, or his association, or his occupation, or by education and training in those particulars which he has neglected, or by improvement of his habits or his personal appearance; all of these will require your assistance, but the dependent must be a willing co-operator in his own upbuilding.

*It is important to note that the per cents above given are not of the total 1,000 cases counted, but of the 17.8 per cent. of them mentioned on p. 353.—EDITOR.

THE RELATION OF INTEMPERANCE TO DEPENDENCY.

C. M. HUBBARD, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF CINCINNATI.

We are all agreed that intemperance is an important cause of poverty. To be able to give the exact percentage of its effect would be both satisfactory and helpful.

We are also agreed that intemperance is a result as well as a cause of poverty. To be able to tell in a given instance which is the initial factor would enable us to determine where the chief force of our attack should be directed. But the determination of this point will depend largely upon the preconceived notions of the investigator and no conclusion can be accepted as final. It is wiser therefore to leave the question open and devote ourselves to the task of devising ways and means of overcoming the evil. It is to this practical phase of the problem that this discusson is directed.

PERCENTAGES.

It will be sufficient to say that from fifteen to twenty-five per cent of poverty may be traced directly to intemperance. The former is not far from the average worked out by the charity organization societies, while the latter represents the conclusion of the Committee of Fifty. For our purposes it is not necessary to be more accurate.

The fact should be emphasized that the percentage does not necessarily measure the importance of a factor in the cause of poverty. In cases of intemperance the shame and humiliation, the abuse, the successive stages of degradation, each of which is poignant with suffering and culminating in dire want, cause distress far greater than the statistics would indicate.

REMEDIES.

The evil of intemperance is attacked through the individual and through the state, or other agencies outside of the individual.

The individual lines of attack are persuasion, coercion and religion.

The remedies outside of the individual are education, improved environment, and the restriction or prohibition of the liquor traffic.

INDIVIDUAL REMEDIES—PERSUASION.

Persuasion may take the form of a simple appeal to the better instincts, resulting sometimes in a definite promise or pledge, or it may consist of the indirect influence of friends and associates. Persuasion generally fails either because the conscience of the victim has become deadened and unresponsive or because his will has been weakened by his excesses so that it is impossible to carry out his good intentions.

COERCION.

Coercion takes the form of fine, imprisonment, enforced medical treatment, and of actual or threatened loss of family ties or privilege or prestige.

The ordinary form of fine or imprisonment has but little value. It causes loss of self-respect, engenders bitterness and does nothing to strengthen the will against future temptation. The records of police courts supply a pitiable commentary upon this phase of the subject.

MEDICAL TREATMENT.

Enforced medical treatment is desirable. The inebriate is diseased. His incarceration and treatment should be for a period long enough to effect a cure. His sentence should be indeterminate and his release be on probation.

A state sanitarium has existed in Massachusetts for sixteen years. Their published report for the year ending Sept. 30th, '05, shows that on September 15th, 1905, 18 per cent of those who had been discharged during the year ending March 6th, 1904, could not be found, while 32 per cent were known to have remained temperate and 19 per cent had improved—that is, were drinking less.

Four months after the close of the year ending March 6th, 1905, 31 per cent of those who had been discharged during the year had remained temperate, while 18 per cent had shown improvement.

A state hospital for inebriates was established at Knoxville, Iowa, in January, 1906, and a report covering the first six months states that fifty-seven patients had been paroled during the first six months and that while a large per cent. of the paroles seem to be doing well, it is too early to draw any accurate conclusions.

A recent statute authorizes the establishment of a state sani-

tarium in Minnesota, and it is proposed to establish a municipal sanitarium for inebriates on the new farm colony at Cleveland.

LOSS OF PRESTIGE.

Coercion in the earlier stages of the vice is often effective in the form of a warning that unless reformation is effected there will be loss of position or social prestige or the disintegration of the family. This form of coercion is often successful because it appeals to the best and strongest part of the character and is generally applied in the earlier stages of the habit.

EDUCATION.

Education as a direct reformatory agent has but little value. It is preventive rather than reformatory and should begin with the child rather than the adult. Indirectly, however, it is sometimes efficacious. The instruction of the wife in cooking and housekeeping may have a very decided effect upon an intemperate husband.

RELIGION.

Religion is one of the most effective of all reformatory agents. But it is limited in its application. A man cannot be made to accept religion against his will. But it has often been demonstrated that it can lift a man from the depths of degradation, stand him upon his feet and enable him to walk upright. The acceptance of religion usually means also the acceptance of new and better associates, without which reform would be much more difficult.

GENERAL REMEDIES.

The more general remedies to be applied by the state or the community are, as a rule, preventive in their nature.

EDUCATION.

Education is of supreme importance—not only special education as to the bad effects of alcohol upon the mind and body, but general education which shall raise the intellectual standards of the

community. Authorities differ upon some points regarding the physical effects of alcohol but there are many points upon which there is practical unanimity of opinion and these should be clearly and frequently set forth in every educational center.

ENVIRONMENT.

Environment has an important bearing upon intemperance. Through proper legislation, decent, comfortable and sanitary homes should be guaranteed to the working people. Civic recreation centers should be established and maintained within reach of every citizen. Every school building should be such a center. The social life of the saloon constitutes one of its most valuable assets. Unless the social needs of a community are met in other ways, the saloon will have a never failing source from which to draw recruits for its patronage.

PROHIBITION.

Restriction and prohibition are measures that should always be taken into account. The reports of the special committee of the Committee of Fifty upon the legislative aspects of the liquor problem indicate that it is impossible to enforce laws upon the subject that are greatly at variance with public sentiment. This may lead to a modification of the demand for universal prohibition to that of local option. As charitable workers with needy families in their homes we must recognize the hopelessness of remedying or preventing many cases of habitual drunkenness by any other method. With a perfect system of education, with a complete system of recreation and educational centers, with a true social democracy and with rational and adequate means of dealing with those who become intemperate, it is conceivable that the social waste would be reduced to such small proportions that the necessity of adopting the radical remedy of prohibition might be open to question. But as society is now organized, none of these agencies are far advanced and some of them can hardly be said to exist. As a result many men become inebriates with but little hope of reformation.

As students of social problems, we should try to find the fundamental causes of an evil. If we can shut off the supply of liquor, we can accomplish at once that which we might find impossible

in a direct effort to modify the character. We may doubt the possibility of enforcing prohibition, but if we declare ourselves in favor of it as a principle, we can do much to hasten the time when it can be made practicable. Prohibition, if enforced, will promote a standard of public intelligence and morality that will eventually render prohibition unnecessary. It is a kind of moral protective tariff.

PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES.

In dealing with intemperance in the homes of the poor, the social worker is handicapped in many ways.

It is difficult to establish a friendly relation that will render persuasion effective. It takes time and tact and infinite patience. The inebriate, if a man, is generally dealt with at arm's length. If seen at all, it is for the purpose of coercion rather than friendly helpfulness.

The social worker is confronted also by the great difficulty of effecting any radical change in the environment of the inebriate. The home is squalid and unsanitary. The associations are not uplifting. There is a dearth of healthful and strengthening amusements and entertainments.

The social worker is further embarrassed by the fact that the inebriate has an almost ungovernable appetite for strong drink, a weak will and is beset by temptations on every corner.

I would repeat that under such circumstances the condition is well-nigh hopeless. It is like dipping water out of a leaky boat. As fast as it is bailed out more runs in. Let us insist that the boat be overhauled and the leak stopped.

As a working program I would suggest that as a first step we insist upon prohibition and that we demand the strict enforcement of all existing restrictive legislation; second, that we promote general education and insist that specific instruction be given regarding the evils of intemperance; third, that we demand proper living conditions for our working people and ample provision for recreation and social centers; fourth, that we insist upon rational treatment of inebriates in sanatoria; fifth, that we do all in our power to establish such personal friendly relations with those now afflicted with alcoholism as will give us the largest influence in helping them to overcome the habit.

The actual experiences of those who have worked with inebriates

in their own homes is discouraging, but an occasional success demonstrates that the task of reformation is not absolutely hopeless. I will give you the history of some illustrative cases.

PERSUASION SUCCESSFUL.

Mrs. G. was deserted by her husband four years ago. She has two little girls, one five and the other twelve years of age. The latter was ill, in a dirty bed, with her clothes on, when the agent called. The room was in utter confusion and the woman's face indicated drink. A physician was secured by the agent. A fire was built and a clean bed and orderly room insisted upon. The woman was willing to promise anything for the sake of relief and friendship. The child soon recovered and once only after this the room was found dirty. The woman confessed to the agent that she had been a drinker for 12 years. The family was moved to two good rooms in a respectable tenement and a friendly visitor was secured whose religious qualifications have endeared her to the woman. The result has been a very desirable one. The woman works steadily, keeps her house and children clean and is a far happier woman than formerly. She has now abstained from drink for several months.

FRIENDLY INTEREST RESULTING IN IMPROVEMENT.

Mr. L. was reported as destitute. He was ill and the family lived in dark, unwholesome rooms. Generous assistance was given. The man was intemperate. Frequent calls were made. Special notice was taken of the children. Gifts were made to them by the visitor in charge. A Christmas basket sent. The children were taken to Christmas parties. The ambition of the man was aroused. Advances of personal help made to him were responded to. The visitor and agent visited him during various illnesses and discouragements. Coal and rent were repeatedly advanced which were paid back in full by weekly payments. The present record shows that the man is temperate. He works steadily. The family lives in two bright, well-kept rooms. Every effort was made to have the man feel that as great an interest was taken in his welfare as in that of the family. When ill, dainty dishes were carried to him by the visitor and when obliged to enter the hospital, the agent

had him conveyed there in a carriage, so as to make him feel the friendly interest. While friendly advances were being made on the one side, the doctor, by request, used his influence by threatening the insane asylum if the man should return to his dissipation. The man's pride was touched and it is hoped that the reform will be permanent.

COERCION EFFECTIVE.

Mr. P. is a young man who through drink stole from his employer. He was sentenced to the work house. His wife was obliged to work for herself and child, although not strong, during his incarceration. She was helped with groceries, coal and work. Through efforts of the woman and the visitor from the Society, the man, upon his promise to do better, and provide for the family, was released before his term had expired, as it was his first offense. He secured work and went back to the country where he came from, taking his family with him.

COERCION WITH SOME IMPROVEMENT.

Mr. and Mrs. B. were married in Germany and after coming to this country the man became so addicted to drink, that he cruelly ill-treated the woman and dragged her from town to town, never staying long in one place. They slept in box cars, shanties and sheds. For years she endured desertions and ill-treatment and neglect of the children. When it was finally explained to her that she did not have to receive this man back after one of his periodical desertions, and that it was possible to secure support for the children from him, she very gladly took the case to court. It has finally been made obligatory on the man to stay away from the home, and to provide a certain sum weekly for the children. The woman now receives part of the man's wages directly from his employer, and with the aid of the oldest boy and her own efforts the family is self-supporting. There is no real improvement in the man's tendency to drink but he is restrained by the mandate of the court.

PERSUASION UNSUCCESSFUL.

Mr. S. is an intelligent workman. His wife is refined and the children are bright. He is a model husband when sober. He would periodically go on a spree and lose his position. At such

times he was very abusive. He would seem repentant after he had sobered up and never had difficulty in securing another place. He would earn from ten to twenty dollars per week. The sprees increased in frequency and the family was finally reported to be in need.

A visitor took a personal interest in the man and frequently visited him in his home. He went with him to the theater and would often make appointments with him on Saturday nights when he had received his week's wages and thus prevent him from wasting his money in dissipation. He accepted invitations to dine with him. He advanced them money to buy furniture and move into better quarters which was all repaid in installments. The sprees decreased in frequency, but in spite of all that could be done, he would still occasionally get drunk.

The visitor left the city and the dissipation increased. Finally on account of his excessive abuse, the matter was reported to the Juvenile Court. He was arrested and put on probation. For a considerable time he abstained from drink and became manager of one of the groceries conducted by the largest firm in the city. Finally a spree lost him that position. The judge admonished him and gave him another chance. He secured employment in a factory and his wife was able to accumulate fifty dollars in a savings bank. Again he went on a spree but the fifty dollars was beyond his reach. His wife consenting, the court gave him still another chance. He secured work across the river in Kentucky and contrary to the advice of her friends, the wife consented to move across the river to be nearer his work, thus removing the family from the jurisdiction of the court.

DISCUSSION ON STANDARDS OF LIVING AND DEPENDENCY AND CHARACTER.

MR. JAMES F. JACKSON—In poverty as in anything else, if we are to change conditions it is necessary that we know causes, and they are hard to know. The preceding speakers have suggested that we are still attributing causes which have ceased to exist, or out of the proportion in which they now exist. We are all interested in preventive and reconstructive philanthropy, but if we are to effect a reconstruction it is necessary to know what we are to reconstruct. In dealing with these causes I think we must apply the rule that applied at Donnybrook Fair, "wherever you see a head hit it." You do not necessarily know the exact percentage which intemperance or any other cause has produced, but when you see causes of poverty get after

them. Which of these, intemperance, immorality, ignorance and so on, is the greatest cause of poverty it is difficult to state. But ignorance is a chief difficulty. Ignorance of the laws of temperance, ignorance causing inefficiency, ignorance as to moral laws, ignorance of one thing or another is the fundamental difficulty with the large amount of our poverty and therefore to this you address yourselves. Thus the settlement, for example—see how large a portion of its time is given to mental, physical and moral education. One of the directors of schools in a city of half a million said recently: "If I had my way about it we would add to our budget $25,000 a year necessary to support the Associated Charities, because it is distinctly an educational institution." That also is true of the visiting nurse's work. Charity work is educational and one of the most difficult persons to educate is the shiftless individual.

Mr. McClain suggested that improvidence was about the same as shiftlessness in the difficulty of treatment. We have for years been giving attention to the development of thrift, through penny savings, home savings and various other schemes to facilitate and encourage saving among people of small means or slight inclination. And in no small part, the important work with needy families in their homes is devoted to the development of individual thrift. There is one cause of poverty which was not definitely referred to, that is lack of responsibility, the failure to carry the responsibility which a person has voluntarily assumed. It covers the whole question of desertion, which is bothering the best heads of the best societies all over the country. This lack of responsibility is largely due to a lack of moral training. I have believed for a long while that we fail to recognize the high grade Sunday school as a factor in preventive charity work. It is a good deal more effective than we give it credit for. This lack of responsibility reaches in many ways. Here is an old lady. She worked hard all her life. She could not have saved anything for various reasons, some of which she has been responsible for and some her husband and a lot of them society was responsible for. She has a son who supports himself and is amply able to support her but does not. The irresponsibility towards the community as a whole which Mr. Washburn mentioned is a very important proposition so far as all of us are concerned. The lack of the feeling of responsibility to fill our places in society, to do the best work we can in the best way we can, that lack of responsibility finds its greatest expression when a man, a machinist for instance, throws up his job of $3 or $4 a day, leaves his family, and runs off somewhere because he lacks moral quality. He is an efficient worker, he is not lazy, but he is not responsible. If we can develop this in him we have done a fine thing, but you never can develop anything in anybody else which you do not have yourselves, and if we are going to develop responsibility in others, we have got to have it in our own work.

Ignorance and lack of responsibility: If these two "much inclusive" causes could be eliminated, we should be far on the road to showing that the poor ye need not always have with you.

DR. BOGEN—The prevailing idea of charity workers of former days was that the poor persist in remaining poor, that they are themselves to blame

for being poor; that they are extravagant, improvident, shiftless and not conscious of their own condition. The charity worker of former days was asked to ascertain the minimum requirements of a human being, and, always ready to assist, conducted investigation on this subject. You see, however, from the excellent paper of Father Ryan that the charity worker has come to a different conclusion not altogether satisfactory as regards the purpose for which he was asked to investigate. He has come to the conclusion that there is no need of cutting down the expenses of the poor, but that it is necessary to raise the standard of living and to reduce the unnecessary exploitation of the wage earners; that the standard of living, being a relative conception, is changing every day for the better; that there is sufficient material in this world to satisfy the wants of all humanity; that there is no need to reduce the happiness of the world in order that a selected few may live while the rest of humanity work for them.

The subject assumes a new aspect to the charity workers because of the conclusion that it is not the poor that are to be reformed, and as our speaker has suggested we have to go to the employer and ask him to consider a little more the rights of the people employed. There are organized forces that keep down the poor man to the minimum wage earning capacity and the very question of having the *minimum* wage indicates that the poor man has only limited rights in this world of ours. The poor man is so kept down that not only is he limited in his earning capacity, but his purchasing capacity is reduced to the extent that he has to pay double for almost everything he uses. In the city of Cincinnati the tenement-house agitation has brought out the fact that while the landowners were satisfied to get six per cent. on their investments on private homes and office buildings, they insist upon having twelve and eighteen and twenty per cent. upon the dwelling places of the poor people. And they would not permit the introduction of a tenement-house law that would make it impossible for them to draw this interest on the earnings of the poor. And the same is true with the installment plan—the plan by which the poor have to take things on credit, and pay enormous prices for them. No matter how low is your standard of living you can not fail to acknowledge that there is a great portion of our population unable to live up to it.

Naturally, it is asked, "Aren't you exaggerating the situation? How do the poor people live if they can not get up to the lowest standard of living?" The answer is that they will reduce themselves and their children and their wives and their families and society at large, to a body of degenerates if this is permitted to go on. If you think of the number of children that are sent to work, not because the employer wants it and not because the poor man wants it, but of sheer necessity for bread, then you will realize the fact that these children will not be able to grow into good citizenship. The talk of undesirable citizenship is not the talk of a charity worker. Seven days a week, and ten hours' work a day to provide for a large family for eight or nine dollars a week are not conditions to promote good citizenship. We have to thank the saloonist and the druggist for the substitutions they furnish for good food, and we have to thank all these means by which we stunt our population to a condition where they can not

understand the distress in which they are living. I wish to say that I for one can not greatly blame a man who is tempted by the saloon and falls into drink. I do not blame even the deserter as an individual. It is conditions that have to be blamed. It is time for people to know that something has to be radically changed in order to achieve a normal standard of living.

FRANK R. MCDONALD—It is safe to say that every charitable and penal institution contains some evidence of the marked relation existing between dependency and intemperance.

In the orphan asylums we find many of the little ones have been brought there because of a parent's intemperate habits which have sent him prematurely to his grave. At the training schools for boys and girls investigation will show that a large percentage of the inmates are there, either directly or indirectly, because of intemperate conditions surrounding them in early childhood. In the reformatories you will discover that intemperance has had much to do with bringing about the first conviction of the boy or girl sent there. In the workhouses you will find that ninety per cent. of all confined there attribute their downfall to liquor. In the charitable homes for children and old people numberless cases can be found of those who are thrown on the public for sustenance, not from lack of parents or relatives, but because these parents or relatives have incapacitated themselves for the proper carrying out of their rightful duties by intemperance. Penal institutions present the same facts to us, but in a somewhat different light.

Now, just what do we mean by intemperance? "The drink habit," everyone will exclaim; but is that strictly true? It is conceded that the drink habit holds first place in the list of intemperate habits; but it is equally true that there are other intemperances which either lead up to or result in the drink habit. Intemperance in anything appealing to the appetite, over-indulgence in passionate temper or disposition, complete devotion to so-called pleasure to the exclusion of all else—in fact any over-indulgence in evil habits—all come under the name of intemperance, and deserve long and faithful deliberation, not so much to discover how dangerous or evil they are, or how their victims can best be reclaimed, but to discover what their causes have been, and to find a means of preventing these causes.

This I believe to be the key to the whole situation, that before the cause sets in, the cure must be administered. "That," some may say, "sounds illogical, for how can we know where the causes may take root?" That is just the point; we can not know, and because we can not our field is very broad.

How, then, shall we go to work? It is necessary to instruct, teach, educate. The children of the rich and poor alike should be taught the best uses to which their faculties and bodies can and should be put. The effects of alcohol, of drugs, and of intemperance of all kinds on the system should be intelligently taught to them.

Start at the beginning with the children. Superintendents of public

institutions, managers and directors of public charities, overseers of orphan asylums, and all engaged in caring for the dependent, whether in childhood, young manhood and womanhood, or maturity, use the splendid advantages you possess in your great educational institutions to bring the minds of your charges to a knowledge of the great evil of over-indulgence!

I should not be doing the subject justice if I did not call your attention to the necessity of education in the home. If you visit our public institutions you will find thousands of cases that have finally drifted into dependence through the erroneous judgment of their parents. The facility with which growing children can secure the means of building up and fostering an appetite for over-indulgence in intoxicating beverages, has placed many men and women on the list of dependents as they grow older and are unable to curb the appetite. Parents must be taught, that they in turn may teach their children, that the population of hospitals, State prisons, reformatories, poor-houses, inebriate asylums and orphanages is made up of those whose lives have been wholly wrecked or partly ruined through intemperance, and that it rests with them to see that there is no transmission by heredity, to future generations, of intemperance, in order that dependency from intemperance may cease to exist.

Rev. C. W. Pond, Oberlin, Ohio—An Indian boy writing from Hampton expressed, I think, two of the elements of this personal efficiency, this subjective power which makes one not dependent but independent.

"Dear Pa," he says, "I am well. I pray every day and hoe onions." He had it. He is studying every day, praying every day and working every day under his teacher with the approbation of his father, even though that father were a red man hundreds of miles away.

Mr. David Morgan—I think we will all agree that the principal cause of poverty is ignorance. Now I want to ask you carefully to consider why this ignorance prevails and who is responsible for it. Have we not primarily come to the conclusion that our public school system is largely responsible for the present ignorance of these people. Social workers all know that the crying demand of the people of St. Paul is sewing schools, cooking classes; even graduates of the State Colleges have asked the privilege of joining our cooking classes, and our industrial school. Every social worker realizes that most of our energy is expended in qualifying people to take care of themselves.

I have had a canvass made down in Bethel and I was astonished to find when the returns came in from two hundred homes, that from each home their actual yearly average income was not to exceed $325, and many of these poor families were trying to raise their children four, five or six, with an actual income of less than two hundred dollars a year. It is the outrage of this nation that has two billions of surplus and don't know what to do with it, so that we are squandering it for the disgrace of the nation, making us a byword to the world; and then to permit in this city of St. Paul, one of the best cities on this continent, the existence of at least one thousand families that can not get three hundred dollars a year for their labor.

Miss Lucy Page Gaston, Chicago, Ill.—I have been struck many times in our conferences with the emphasis being laid upon results and the little attention given to causes, but in this conference I feel that, as never before, causes are being considered. It is not only head knowledge that is needed, but it is heart interest that must be aroused before right results can be attained. In the work that I am doing among boys, I feel that we have found the secret we need, that which will arouse the heroic in young America and will make a boy want to be and do what is right. At our Headquarters in the Woman's Temple in Chicago and the Anti-Cigarette League, many boys who come in there wrecked and ruined are reached and helped to go out and become self-supporting and self-respecting citizens of the future. One boy said to me not long ago, "Miss Gaston, you are taking the one bad habit away from me," and that is what we want to do.

Rev. Samuel Fallows, Chicago—You have got to come down to the individual and meet the life. The average sum of wages paid to the laboring men in the United States is about the average paid to the ministers of all the churches, excluding our Catholic friends, in the same territory. The average paid to the minister who has to go through college and live and clothe himself respectably, is only between six hundred and seven hundred dollars and the reason why these ministers can support their families and send their boys to school and college and those boys come forth as leaders of society is because they take care of their personal expenditures. They do not spend for drink nor for other things which go out in smoke. We have got to come back to the individual life after all.

W. H. McClain—Only a few days ago I noticed in a cablegram from London, Bernard Shaw had made a speech to the Royal Society in which he said, "what is the matter with the poor is poverty." Now I do not think that he has told anything new. We all know that poverty is the trouble with the poor; but what we want to know is whether they shall continue to be poor. Are there not some causes that may be removed? We want to get up to the fountain head. We want all the social workers and the trained nurses and the settlement workers and the charity organizations and all those interests represented in this great conference to simply join in some way to save thousands who are about to be lost.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION IN THE SMALLER CITIES

A. W. McDOUGALL, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE BUREAU OF ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, NEWARK, N. J.

This paper, as the writer understands it, is to apply to cities having a population of less than 300,000 and is to discuss means of solving some of the ever present and pressing problems that are forced upon the Charity Organization Society secretary.

With regard to the details of formal organization, the question of constitution and by-laws, etc., nothing need here be said. The Field Department of "Charities and the Commons," through Mr. Francis H. McLean, of Brooklyn, will furnish information to societies just organizing. The questions that need discussion here are those of daily administration that puzzle and perplex.

It will be helpful at the beginning to state some of these questions.

The District System versus the Central Office form of organization.

> I mention this because there may be a question even in cities less than 300,000 as to the wisdom of working toward the one as against the other. When there is a choice which shall it be? Manufacturing cities of the population indicated may have distinct neighborhoods, separate communities within the city. The district system develops the "neighborhood" idea. How will this be provided for when the work is done entirely from one central office?

The question of paid workers and volunteer service.

> How far shall the work of the society be left to paid workers; how much shall hinge on the service of volunteers?

When shall friendly visiting be begun?

> At what period of the society's growth and under what conditions?

The question of finances.

> Is there a "royal road" to getting adequate financial support for a society, or is it a matter of education and growth? How is money to be gotten and what are the principles involved?

How far is the Charity Organization Society responsible for the whole system of financing the charities of its city?

> This raises the question as to whether the Charity Organization Society ought not to work for the adoption of *some* system. Is the

"Registry of Charities and Charity Solicitors" of the Charity Organization Society sufficient, or should more be done? In case a system is to be adopted, is the Liverpool plan the ideal one or is it lacking in educational value?

The question of material relief.

Not the old question of whether material relief ought or ought not to be given by the Charity Organization Society, but the question as to how best to secure relief in those cases where material relief is the thing most needed and how best to administer it?

The responsibility of the secretary of the Charity Organization Society for applying the conclusions worked out in other lines of philanthropic activity;

Methods for the care of children, institution and placing out work; adequate relief and methods of applying material relief; social and recreational work for the "submerged"; proper housing conditions, etc.

The responsibility of the secretary of the Charity Organization Society for social and economic study of the conditions

under which the poor of his city live, and leadership on his part in providing necessary remedies.

The economic burdens of the poor—what are they?

How far is the Charity Organization Society responsible for lightening these burdens?

These questions are raised not with the expectation of satisfactorily answering them, but in order, at least, to bring them into the open and arouse discussion. The statement of them will indicate the belief of the writer that, however they may be answered, the Charity Organization Society secretary should have an ordered scheme of work, an intelligent program, that he puts before his public.

Before entering upon discussion of the questions it may be said that the subject of the paper could best be treated under two heads: First, Charity Organization in the smaller cities; second, Charity Organization in small communities.

The first may be taken to include cities under 300,000 population; the second the smaller communities, including those where the maintenance of a Charity Organization Society with a paid secretary is either of doubtful expediency or difficult to accomplish. The discussion of the second topic should involve the

question as to how far and by what means Charity Organization principles may be worked out in the smaller towns and the suburban communities throughout the country. There should logically enter into the discussion the question of possible state organization along this line, or the feasibility of Charity Organization Extension Work, possibly with paid traveling secretaries working each in a circuit of several towns.

THE DISTRICT SYSTEM VS. THE CENTRAL OFFICE FORM OF ORGANIZATION.

The first question that presents itself in the cities just under 300,000 population is as to the form of organization.

> Shall the city be divided up into districts and an office established in each, or shall the entire work be done in one central office?

The Newark Bureau of Associated Charities, with which the writer is connected, presents an interesting study in this regard. The society was organized on the district system in 1882, when the population was 132,000. The Boston society was the model and its constitution was adopted bodily for the Newark work. The work continued on the district lines for possibly twelve years. The enthusiasm and vitality of the society then began to ebb, and gradually the district offices were given up and the agents brought into the central office. At the time the rather interesting reason assigned for this step was that the work was naturally growing less, owing to the society having accomplished its purpose, and the plant should be decreased. When the present secretary began his work he found the machinery of the district system still in existence, but the district offices had been given up and the agents allowed to go. The "neighborhood" idea had practically been forgotten. The three different district conference organizations were meeting at the central office and each took up the cases within its own district lines, discussed them, and, as an executive body, disposed of them. The central office handled mostly homeless men and derelict families. But little friendly visitor work was being done. The members of the conference were acting in an executive capacity, making decisions as to the disposition of cases, whether they should be referred to this or that society, whether they should have material relief, etc. Because of the financial condition of the society, and

especially because of its low state of vitality, it was hopeless to expect soon to reopen district offices. At the same time it seemed impossible to build up an effective work under conditions then existing. Whether wisely or not, the secretary decided upon the following line of action:

First, to retain in the constitution and by-laws the provision for the district system, holding up this as the goal toward which the society should work.

Second, providing in the meantime for a union of the conferences for the purpose of doing friendly visiting work, leaving the immediate handling of cases and the decision as to their immediate disposition in the hands of the trained workers in the office.

The present form of the Newark work is this: The United District Conferences have become the Conference of Friendly Visitors; the district lines have disappeared for the time being. The conference is now one of the departments of the work. It deals with selected cases referred to it by the "case committee." The case committee performs the functions formerly performed by the district conference. It is composed of members of the board of directors and of the friendly visitors' conference and the paid workers of the central office. The members of the board of directors serve in rotation on this committee, each serving one month. The committee meets two hours weekly.

To return to the question of district system versus central office system, it would seem to be a matter to be settled by local conditions. Are there distinct communities within the city? The question would also seem to be one of expediency. There remains, however, the question, how shall the neighborhood idea be provided for and how far is the Charity Organization Society responsible for providing friendly visitors who are neighbors of the family and acquainted with the resources and conditions of the neighborhood?

A PROGRAM OF WORK.

I assume that the Charity Organization Society in the smaller city to a greater degree than in the great city has the opportunity of leadership and the chance of guiding charitable activity. The work of such a society is more composite and more satisfactory becaue it touches the charity problem from all sides. The

opportunity is afforded the secretary of learning thoroughly the needs of his city, of learning its charitable resources, and of mapping out a program of work which shall involve the co-operation of all the charities in meeting these needs, the extension and development of the work of some, the consolidation of others, and the organization of new charities where there is need for them. I realize that this sounds rather ambitious and that the secretary, in any given case, will find himself facing immediate problems, "a condition and not a theory." And yet, the items of such a program and the order in which they are to be carried out aside, it is exceedingly important that there should be an intelligent and progressive program that shall serve as a guide for the development of the charities of the city. How shall this program be formulated and what shall be the order of the steps taken towards its fulfillment?

A Charity Organization Society's first work, then, is to develop its own equipment—office facilities, trained workers, emergency funds, etc.—to the point where it can be of greatest efficiency. Furthermore, it must take up such lines of work as will arouse interest and sympathy and will give it standing and influence. The problem facing a secretary desirous of reinvigorating a society in a given city is one that he must solve according to the opportunities offered. It may be said in general that he must show an interest in every phase of charitable need in the city and must push such lines of work as meet the most evident and pressing need, in the meantime doing educational work and gradually building up his support. That this line of action is followed out is evident from a study of the activities of the various C. O. S. societies throughout the country. In one city, visiting nurses are employed as part of the C. O. S. work; in another tuberculosis is made the basis for a campaign, in another housing reform is taken up. These various activities have their reason, in part at least, in the need of the Charity Organization Society to arouse public interest, to draw attention to its work and to strengthen its influence. Beyond this, however, they ought to be relegated to their proper place in the C. O. S. program and the society's work balanced and shaped up in accordance with its real purposes. In other words, this work where possible should be done by separate organizations working each in its own field, the C. O. S. acting as the bureau of intercommunication.

CASE WORK.

The society will find its hint as to the order of its program of reform in the individual cases with which it is called to deal. One case may test its whole program, as the problems involved in such a case may ramify into all the charity problems of the city. For instance, take the oft-recurring case of the widow with small children. What ought the secretary of a charity organization society to advise—put the children in an institution and get the mother a place to live out? Put some of the children there and secure her a place with her baby at service? Raise a pension and support the widow with her children in her own home? How are these funds to be raised and is it the duty of the Charity Organization Society to do so? etc. In this connection come up the questions as to whether there is a sufficiency of day nurseries and whether there is a sufficient amount of material relief accessible in the city, whether there is need of institutions for babies under one year old, or whether this can best be provided for by boarding out, etc.

THE C. O. S. RESPONSIBLE FOR APPLYING THE CONCLUSIONS WORKED OUT IN OTHER LINES OF PHILANTHROPIC ACTIVITY.

It is the work of the Charity Organization secretary, in the handling of its cases, to apply the results worked out in other lines of charitable activity—child-helping work; institutional care and placing out work; material relief, how it shall be made adequate, how administered; the proper use of day nurseries, laundries, etc. He must know the results and experience along various lines and apply these results in working out his case problems and endeavor to reshape the charitable work of his community along these lines. I realize what this means in the face, for instance, of the old-line institutional care for children, the orphan asylum of the old type. The C. O. S. is possibly investigating cases for these institutions or has occasion to use them in its work for specific families. It is the duty of the secretary to begin a campaign to change these, for he can not sacrifice the well-being of the children for whom he becomes responsible. We realize how difficult it is to face a board of lady directors, impressed with their own goodness in being willing to do the work and unconscious of any possibility of improving it. Steps must be taken

to reach these managers and eventually a change brought about. In Newark, after three years' work, we succeeded in securing a joint committee made up of representatives of these institutions, and through this committee placing out work is being gradually substituted for institutional care. The point I make is that the Charity Organization Society is responsible for including such a campaign as this in its program and it can do so in the smaller cities.

FRIENDLY VISITOR WORK.

The Newark Bureau has stood for the following modifications of friendly visiting:

1. Selection of improvable cases.
2. Selection of adaptable friendly visitors.
3. Training of friendly visitors.
4. Supervision of trained workers.
5. Supplementing the work of the volunteer friendly visitor by that of the paid visiting housekeeper.

The friendly visitors' conference of the Newark Bureau handles only such families as are referred to it by the society's case committee. On the principle that with a given amount of energy and service only so much result can be expected, it endeavors to put this energy and service where it will bring the greatest return. The Newark Bureau believes in giving consideration to what Professor Peabody has called the "social updraft." It believes in periodically sifting the cases that are being handled by the conference and referring back to the office and the trained workers what appear to be the unimprovable cases. Also in sifting periodically the volunteer friendly visitors, dropping out those that are ill-adapted to the work or unimprovable.

THE VISITING HOUSEKEEPER.

The Newark Bureau has felt the inadequacy of the work of the friendly visitor with the weak, discouraged mother of the dirty and unkempt home. With the feeling that something practical could be done to supplement the work of the visitor, an intelligent, capable woman, willing to go into the dirty and untidy homes and, at first, herself to clean and tidy them, was employed. She was at the same time to teach and encourage the family itself to maintain better conditions and to work hand in hand with the friendly visitor.

Two possible dangers to the friendly visitor work were anticipated. First, that of weakening the volunteer work of the visitor because of dependence upon the paid visiting housekeeper. Second, that of weakening the families themselves by doing "their fetching and carrying" for them, the temptation being always great to an energetic, capable woman of doing the work herself rather than going through the labor of self-control necessary to teach the slovenly housewife to do it. Neither of these dangers have actually eventuated.

MATERIAL RELIEF.

The opportunity is offered the Charity Organization Society in the smaller cities to work out the question of material relief in the wisest way for the reason that there are no separate relief societies and the C. O. S. can keep the matter in its own hands. The attitude of Charity Organization toward material relief has modified and the question has ceased to occupy a position of great importance. At the same time the administration of relief has come to be recognized as a matter requiring skill and wisdom. In other words, the problem has shifted and the accent placed elsewhere than at first. It has been the experience of the Newark society that, by the prompt and wise use of emergency relief, the necessity is constantly avoided of referring cases to the relief society for continuous care. Furthermore, the society has endeavored to carry on a campaign of education to convince the relief society and the public that adequate relief given wisely, promptly and continuously is itself one of the means of preventing continuous dependence. Frequently under the old method of relief-giving, aid has been so inadequate and so unsystematic that it has made itself a continuous necessity and has frustrated the very purpose for which it was given. Furthermore, the amount of discriminate relief given through organized channels is often totally inadequate to fill the real need of the city.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT.

The writer would venture the following statement of principles as covering the question of the raising of money for charitable work:

First, no money should be accepted for the current maintenance of a society which comes from other sources than annual

contributors or from contributors who can be each year persuaded to renew the contribution on the basis of the work of the previous year. I mean simply to reiterate the stand taken by all charity organization societies that money shall not be received from entertainments, charity balls, or any sources other than direct contribution.

Second, the raising of money should be part of an educational campaign, the purpose of which should be to build up an intelligent, responsible support to be depended upon from year to year. Accepting this as the principle, it would follow that, if a person is employed to go about personally soliciting funds, this person should be one trained in the principles of the society, in touch from day to day with its vital work and taking part in the work. In other words, instead of a collector the society should have a field secretary, carrying on propaganda work, to the end that the contributions which are given shall be the result of the knowledge of the work and a desire to see it continued. I realize that there are two difficulties involved in carrying this out. First, the practical difficulty of securing trained financial secretaries who are willing to do the ofttimes disagreeable work involved. Second, the inability of the societies in the smaller cities to pay the salary necessary to secure such a person. It seems to the writer that if capable people who are undertaking charitable work would realize that ofttimes the most vital work that the society can do is just along the lines of going personally into offices and into homes and carrying the propaganda of charity organization, it would be easier to secure a financial secretary.

With regard to the question of expense, given the proper person, it is possible to engage such a one for a limited period to canvass the field.

THE CHARITIES ENDORSEMENT COMMITTEE.

The Charity Organization Society is responsible also for the general system of financing the charities of the city. Sooner or later it must bring the public to see that it is as bad charity to give indiscriminately to charity organizations as to individual cases of need. Sooner or later the futility and absurdity of the indiscriminate system must give way to some intelligent and systematic method by which charitable contributions will go to

charitable societies in proportion to the importance of their field of work and other needs. In Newark we have followed the example of San Francisco and organized, in co-operation with the Board of Trade, a charities endorsement committee. This matter is spoken of here because this method of securing the desired result is possible in the smaller cities. Such a plan probably could not be put into effect in the great cities. In Newark the Board of Trade is the strong representative business men's organization. The work of this committee has proved itself practical and has been carried to the point where it is now accomplishing results. Furthermore, its work is preparing the way for what will eventually be of great service—that is, a study of the charitable needs of the city along various lines, to be followed by a readjustment of charitable expenditure so that the money contributed will be ultimately placed where it is most needed and will do the most good. This needs only to be stated to indicate its great importance to the city.

THE C. O. S. RESPONSIBLE FOR STUDY OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

It is a part of the responsibility of the C. O. S. in any city to make a study of the social and economic conditions under which the poor are living and it is the place of the secretary to take the leadership in providing remedies if remedies are needed. There is the constant tendency to continue the round of investigation and relief of cases, to refer these to other societies, to attempt, through the personal work of the office workers or the volunteer, to influence the individual or to correct the conditions in the individual case, ignoring meanwhile the causes that are creating just such problems. Where conditions such as now exist in all our cities do not actually create the problems with which charity is dealing they complicate them and make them more difficult of solution. I refer to housing conditions; bad sanitary conditions, the result of the inefficiency of boards of health; the liquor evil, the nonenforcement of the laws against the sale of liquor to minors and to habitual drunkards; the weak and forceless attitude of the authorities toward the nonsupporting or deserting husband; further, there are the larger and more serious questions of the "living wage," the under-vitalization of many of the poor, unfitting them for the struggle for existence, the keener with them because of their industrial inefficiency.

THE BURDENS OF THE POOR.

It seems to the writer that charity in the best sense has two equally important functions to perform. First, to raise the plane of competition or help to that end, to remove the handicaps that are so evidently the lot of the poor. Second, to work for the development of character, of moral fiber and of the industrial qualities that will enable them to win in the competition, meet their difficulties and make a living for themselves. Surely it is a part of the responsibility of the charity worker to see that industrial conditions are not constantly making grist for his mill. Is it not the truth that the destruction of the poor is their poverty? The public and the press are thrashing out the question of the trusts. Is it not a fact that to just these families with which we are dealing from day to day comes home in an acute and serious way the question of the increased cost of the necessaries of life? To the soberest and most conservative charity worker occasionally comes the consciousness that the poor are being constantly exploited. The excessive cost of the necessaries of life when bought in small quantities; the tremendous sale of patent medicines to the poor, and the patronage of the fake cure-all doctors; the drain of industrial insurance and the excessive cost of funerals, these are some of their burdens.

POSSIBLE REMEDIES.

The writer would raise the question as to whether the Charity Organization Society should not include as a practical part of its program some educational and remedial efforts to relieve these burdens while awaiting the larger and more fundamental remedies that are bound to come. Coal purchasing funds and other efforts in a small and unsystematic way have been tried in the past. Could not a system of co-operative purchasing be developed? This might be added to a provident savings fund.

PERSONAL SERVICE.

In closing this paper the writer would call attention again to the fact that whether in the great city or in the small city the work of the charity organization gets its reason for being and depends continuously for its health and vitality upon the personal interest, whether of trained workers or of volunteers, in

the problems of individual poor families. No system, however capably worked out, and no reform, however theoretically desirable, is worth while or will carry, except as it has its inception in the individual need of some individual family. Societies and institutions become perfunctory and lose the element of personal sympathy and kindliness. The field of charity needs constant renewal of health and refreshment of sympathy, and this can only come in the way indicated, the dealing with the personal problems of individual families in a spirit of sincerity and kindly sympathy.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION IN THE SMALLER CITIES.

MISS MAUDE PRIER, ANDERSON, IND.

In discussing the subject of Charity Work in a Small City, I will view it from the standpoint of a Secretary in a very small city, as we have less than 50,000 inhabitants in Anderson, Ind.

The only perceptible difference between the charity work in smaller cities and that in the larger ones, is that the volume of work is less, but the fundamental principles of charity are the same everywhere; they can be no different in a community of 100 from those of the city of millions. However, the method of application depends upon local conditions.

The same problems of poverty, with all the attendant evils, appear in the smaller cities and they call for the same tactful treatment. The same shiftlessness and immorality that so burden the large cities, are prevalent in the smaller communities. The same careful discriminating supervision is called for to lift men above want, and the same resources are required to prevent children from growing up to be paupers.

In order to do this, there must be an administrative force at the head of a society. Some organizations (those of the smaller cities, I mean), have been formed with only volunteer workers to do the work. This in almost every instance, has proven unsuccessful—either the society died in infancy or the people discovered the mistake and a trained worker was installed in time to save the society from destruction.

A church can not be kept up without a trained minister, public schools without trained instructors, hospitals without trained

nurses; in fact, no business can be carried on without persons who have had some experience in that special line; this principle is recognized everywhere, and so it is with the Charity Organization. If it is to command the future, if it is to lay a broad and deep foundation, there must be a trained worker to supervise the work. Some of the smaller cities deem it necessary to keep a secretary in the field for only six or seven months of the year, but they will find that the society is not doing and can not do all that is expected of it. Without a paid secretary the society can not hope to be more than a mere relief society. In the end, money is saved by employing efficient service, for the funds contributed by the public are more judiciously spent, and none is wasted.

When I say that our machinery is modern I mean that the work of our Society, as in the larger cities, is based upon knowledge of the facts, co-operation, and personal service. Or, in other words, upon investigation, registration, co-operation, friendly visiting, dime savings, vacant lot cultivation, volunteer workers, etc.

Co-operation and friendly visiting, two of the cardinal principles of charity work, can be brought to high usefulness in the smaller cities. Co-operation between the different charitable agencies throughout the city can be complete because they are fewer in number. However, we, perhaps, have more private citizens who, with willing hands and hearts, are putting forth all kind of efforts to alleviate distress. Some of these are wise and prudent, while some are sadly mistaken, so, of course these must, by tact and patience, be restrained or modified. One gentleman when asked the question as to the three most important points in C. O. S. work, said he was very much inclined to answer according to the old Greek legend of the three wishes. He would first wish that the city might develop co-operation with all of the charitable agencies; his second wish would be for a little more co-operation and then after thinking the matter all over his third wish would be for a great deal more co-operation.

There was a time when co-operation meant simply the working together of relief societies to avoid duplicate giving, but as we advance in our dealings with the poor, we find that co-operation takes on a different aspect, and after we have fed and clothed the suffering, we do not leave them, but the question of employment opens up with all of its relations to the general labor problem. To nurse and give medical attention to the sick and then

leave them, convalescent, in impure and filthy surroundings, seems impossible, so this brings us to co-operation with the health department and its officers, or it opens up the field of sanitary reform. To help the man and woman and leave the children neglected could not be, so this brings us in touch with the free kindergarten, day nursery, board of children's guardians, juvenile court, and more or less the question of public education comes up. And so in many other directions. Therefore it can readily be seen why the gentleman wishes so much for co-operation. All of these different phases can be as successfully carried out in the smaller as in the larger cities.

Friendly visitation can be brought to greater usefulness because of the absence of slums; it can assume a more neighborly form and the friendly visitor and the one visited can be brought in closer touch. While we do not have slums and the tenement house problem with which to contend, it does not mean that we have no poor people, for we do have Shed Town, Irondale, Buzzard's Roost, and Box Town, all districts in which our poorer and more depraved classes live. In some instances we have been the means of having a house or a shed condemned in order to prevent it being occupied. However, these cannot be called slums from the true meaning of the word. But, as to whether we will have slums in our city fifty years hence, we cannot say, so we believe that it behooves us to forestall slum conditions and we apply preventive measures just as is done in the cities of greater size, only perhaps in a less degree.

This is accomplished most effectually by beginning with the children. We realize that the greatest hope is in the child, and to establish in the youth habits of thrift and economy we have introduced the dime savings into the public schools of Anderson. We, of course, are not the only ones using this system, for as early as 1885 the schools of Long Island City were using the savings system, and now there are over 800 cities in the country teaching their children habits of thrift and economy through the savings banks of the schools. We have found it not only a satisfactory means of working with the children, but that it opens an avenue by which we can more easily enter the homes, and many of the older members of the family have become interested, and the dime savings work among the people is constantly growing.

In the work of a smaller city we are handicapped to a certain

extent because we have fewer resources for developing the work—that is, we do not have free hospitals, tubercular camps, fresh-air missions, municipal lodging houses, settlement houses, public playgrounds, and all the other numerous philanthropic agencies that so help to solve the problems which come before us.

We are, perhaps, more hampered because of a lack of funds with which to carry on the work. I presume most organizations have this to contend with to a greater or less extent, but perhaps the difficulty is more perceptible in the smaller city as there are fewer people of means to give and these same people are the ones appealed to on all occasions where money is to be raised. These are, as a rule, the enterprising people of the town, and it takes time, frequently a long time, to educate others to the idea of giving annually to the Associated Charities. For this reason we have found that the plan of raising money must be adapted to the conditions of the place. I believe in the small city that we are able to do more individual work, and to keep in closer touch with the poor people. Many things can be done by one society which in a larger city would be the work of a number of agencies, the smaller city giving a greater chance for adaptability in meeting the various needs of the community. I feel that in small cities even more than in larger ones, absolute privacy is essential in all investigations, because people are better known in smaller communities.

We are not able to establish that line of work known as summer vacations for children, but have a substitute which has in a measure solved the problem.

Knowing of many children who have never a change from one year's end to another, who never have an opportunity of getting an insight into other modes of living, of knowing that there can be another way of living besides the shiftless, indifferent life of their own home, who never have a change of diet, or never come in contact with refinement, we have secured a list of ladies who are willing to invite a boy or girl into their home for a day each week, more if they choose. This plan has proved very successful, and in many instances is doing for the child that which we desire.

We also have an annual outing for the little folks and tired mothers, at one of the parks, who do not have another such opportunity. For many it is their only vacation of the whole year.

In the smaller city, perhaps more so than in the larger, it seems necessary to keep the interest of the people in the work aroused.

One way in which we have done this and which we have found effectual, was the organization of the Needle Work Guild. This not only brought in the needed garments, but brought the Associated Charities before the people, and many ladies worked for the Society who would not otherwise have been interested.

Our Flower Mission, organized among the younger ladies, is in no way a relief society; its original purpose was to take flowers to the sick poor, thus taking a little sunshine into the home with them; but this year they hope to branch out by enlarging the membership, thus being able to support a visiting nurse. And so again I believe that we of the smaller cities are striving to do and are doing all that you of the larger ones are doing.

Whenever a Society is doing its work, it is the organized brain of the community, and must stand ready to be the hand also. And while we may work with some disadvantages we will all attain the same end by the applications of the same methods, by the widest possible knowledge of conditions and by the exercise of infinite patience and tact.

The Insane and Epileptic.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

THE ELEMENTS OF AN ADEQUATE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC CARE AND TREATMENT.

BY OWEN COPP, M. D., SECRETARY, STATE BOARD OF INSANITY, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN.

In the formative period of a new community, the insane, the defective, the poor, the physically ill and the criminal are likely to be found in the same establishment, or in close association under the same management.

The growth of the state, necessitating larger provision, and the need of specialization in dealing with classes so radically different lead naturally to their separation in institutions under appropriate boards of administration and supervision. At the start or in a small state a single board for each or all of these dissimilar classes may be sufficient or necessary, but ultimately in the large and populous state the complete evolution should be the general board of prison commissioners, the state board of health, the state board of charity and the state board of insanity, with their respective local boards of managers.

THE RELATION OF THE GENERAL TO THE LOCAL BOARDS

should be grounded on two principles: (1) local executive responsibility, (2) general supervisory review of executive acts, with power of investigation, recommendation and criticism, but no arbitrary authority of control in local matters. The absolute powers of the supervisory board should be limited to general interests and inter-relations of multiple local units.

THE THEORY OF OPERATION

presents these supervisory and administrative bodies distinct in function and independent in action, viewing problems of common concern from their different standpoints, but arriving at harmonious conclusions through conference and discussion, or, failing to

agree, referring their differences to the final arbiter, the governor or legislative assembly, representatives of the public, in conformity to democratic principles. Such supervisory relation preserves individuality and independence, encourages free expression of opinion and comparison of methods and results, stimulates to wholesome rivalry for leadership, and insures protest against pernicious policies potent to recast or defeat them.

THE INSANE AND MENTALLY DEFECTIVE

naturally group together under the supervision of the state board of insanity, but have diverse characteristics requiring subdivision into the feeble-minded, the epileptic, the insane criminal and other insane, each presenting sufficient dissimilarity to warrant a special environment.

THE CLAIMS OF LOCALITY

should receive primary consideration in the location of institutions and distribution of patients, in order that they may be accessible to relatives and friends, to promote convenience and economy of visitation and foster their interest.

EACH INSTITUTION SHOULD HAVE ITS EXCLUSIVE DISTRICT,

receiving all patients of its class directly therefrom, and retaining them throughout their treatment, so far as feasible. A definite and complete problem is thus set for solution, with the minimum of outside dictation, imposing responsibility which develops initiative and efficiency.

THE DISTINCTION OF CLASSES.

is imperative, separating the acute and curable from the chronic and incurable, the teachable defective from the intractable and custodial, the mild and harmless from the turbulent and dangerous, the industrious from the indolent and infirm, and so on to the finer differentiation of individuals according to salient characteristics. These requirements, however, are best met under the same local management, by suitable separation in space, variety of buildings and equipment and judicious grouping.

THE ATTEMPT TO SEGREGATE THE INCURABLE

in asylums remote from hospitals for the acute and curable is usually ineffectual. Economic and specific reasons compel the retention of so many chronic patients as to defeat the main purpose. The diminution of hospital centers by concentration of the relatively few curable patients removes them farther from their friends during the period of most acute interest. The general board must intervene in the selection of patients for transfer, but through lack of personal knowledge can not perform this duty most wisely. Under the same management, however, the classification may be complete, easily made by physicians conversant with the peculiarities and needs of patients. The continuity of their treatment and records is preserved. The milder emphasis of incurability is less depressing to patients not insensitive to their condition and future. The hopeful and progressive spirit of the near-by hospital counteracts the tendency to condone the lowering of standards in the asylum for mere care.

THE EXTENT OF A HOSPITAL DISTRICT

should be proportionate to its capacity for patients, expanding with its growth to a maximum by readjustment from time to time through the state board.

THE LIMIT OF EXTENSION OF AN INSTITUTION

is a matter of vital importance, which will elicit a great diversity of opinion. All would desire its limitation within the compass of the individual study and treatment of its patients, and within the capacity of a single executive head to conserve efficiency and unity in all departments, both medical and administrative. Such conditions would restrict expansion beyond six to eight hundred, necessary in the small state and possible in one of wide area where accessibility would necessitate numerous centers of moderate size. Unfortunately, however, the insistent demands of highest economy far transcend such bounds.

THE RECONCILIATION OF THESE DISCORDANT FACTORS

under a practical regime is the imperative task of the institutional manager. The history of public institutions shows conclusively that their size is largely determined by reasons of expediency and economy. The call for extension is incessant. A new building

may be added to an existing plant with comparative ease, but the necessity of creating the expensive organization of a new hospital center is exceedingly difficult to demonstrate. The lower maintenance charge of the large institution is evident to the many, whereas the compensations of the small hospital in promoting better treatment of patients and higher medical and scientific attainment are recognized only by a small minority. Some argue that the saving in maintenance of the large institution would furnish funds for raising the standard of care and treatment; others that its greater numbers would facilitate the better grouping of patients in appropriate classes and surroundings. Whatever the argument, the fact is indisputable that the evolution of public institutions is generally toward enlargement. The demands of highest economy will hardly be satisfied short of two thousand patients under the same management. Such extension is not desirable nor always necessary, but generally supervenes in spite of all opposition.

HOW, THEN, CAN THE INEVITABLE BE TURNED TO ADVANTAGE?

The right development of an institution seeks two ends—(1) efficiency of administration and (2) excellence of medical treatment and scientific attainment, the first being the foundation of the second. Although secondary in real importance, economy of administration must receive primary consideration, because it is the criterion of success in the minds of the public and the taxpayer, who are able to detect its errors and control their correction. Furthermore, its savings are the sure resources available for the betterment of conditions of patients, whereas every dollar of waste by inefficiency or architectural display takes from their comforts, lowers the standard of their treatment and cramps their quarters.

THE TREND OF PROGRESS

leads irresistibly to expertness in both these directions. Therefore there is need of separating as completely as possible administrative from medical functions, since the qualities of the executive and of the scientist in any high degree rarely coexist in the same person, and if so existing, seldom pass the limits of mediocrity in symmetrical development, while either may be dwarfed by exclusive opportunity of the other.

THE PARTING OF THE WAYS

seems to have been reached where the path of the administrator of institutional affairs diverges from that of the *advanced* student of medical science. The idealist would solve the problem through the lay business manager in control of administration and the scientist of medical treatment and research, but the experience of many failures teaches that the inter-relations and mutual dependence of the two are so close, and so great the incapacity of the layman to comprehend medical and scientific wants, that such dual arrangement is fruitful of strife, wasteful of energy and almost barren of good results. The two radical defects and causes of failure may be removed by

UNIFYING AUTHORITY IN A GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT,

who must be a man of executive capacity, primarily a director of the larger business operations, with competent assistants in administrative details. He must also be a thoroughly trained physician, broad in his conception of medical and scientific requirements, and a sound interpreter and applier of the teachings of the laboratory and research activities. Even then the intricate machinery of administration of a great and compact establishment, on whose operation and adjustment economy depends, and therefore the resources and stability necessary to promote the higher aims of science and treatment, may be easily thrown out of gear by the variant demands of two main purposes working out in too close association. Interference and incompatibility would be lessened were it feasible to elevate the whole asylum to the hospital regime, in imitation of the general hospital for physical diseases, but the attempt is bound to fail or issue in compromise of standards of both medical and administrative efficiency, because the necessity obtains only in part and the expense would be prohibitive.

THREE LEADING INDICATIONS

thus appear: (1) reduction of intimacy of relation to a workable minimum, (2) concentration of administrative and medical functions so that one without material sacrifice of the other becomes the dominant consideration, and (3) subdivision and clear definition of departments, so distributing work and fixing responsibility

as to bring all within the co-ordination of one general superintendent who has had a thorough medical training. These conditions may be met by

CLASSIFICATION AND SPATIAL SEPARATION OF THE INSANE

in three main groups: (1) the acute and curable, (2) the chronic infirm, dangerous and custodial, and (3) the chronic harmless and able-bodied. Individual patients would pass from one class to another according to changes of condition and conduct, thus preserving the identity of each group. Such classification is now common in different wards of hospitals, but the close association causes unfavorable reaction of the chronic on the curable. Separation in space and buildings is essential. The distance apart might vary from a few hundred feet to many miles. The departments caring for these classes may be designated respectively the hospital, the asylum and the colony. Each should be in immediate charge of a resident physician adapted to its peculiar requirements, but all should come under the supervision of the general superintendent, who should be the chief executive of the single board of trustees.

THE HOSPITAL

should receive all patients for observation and examination, preliminary to proper disposition in other groups, having its reception house and other provision for classification and short treatment of all clinical types of insanity. The distinctive characteristic of its residual patients would be probable curability. The hospital should be small, retaining not more than ten per cent of the insane population of the composite institution, probably less than 200 out of a maximum of 2,000. It should be the center of the higher medical and scientific work, under the direction of an expert psychiatrist, with an adequate staff of physicians and laboratory workers. The training school for nurses should here reach its highest development. The whole regime should be elevated to the plane of the general hospital for acute physical diseases.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE DEMANDS

would be minimized and subordinated in relative importance, so that the hospital and scientific spirit might properly dominate the internal organization for nursing, medical treatment and research, while the scope and duties of the outside administrator would be so

clearly defined as to be on a workable basis and general business efficiency not much affected. Thus would be laid the foundations on which the psychiatrist could build according to his capabilities. The investigator would become also a clinician, applying the teachings of the laboratory to the needs of his patients on the ward and becoming an essential part of the hospital organism. The many insane hospitals would provide many such centers, furnishing laboratory facilities and clinical material attractive to the best men. Splendid opportunities could be opened to the teachers of psychiatry and students of medicine by creating psychiatric clinics comparable to those associated with German universities. The influence of such clinics would reach physicians in their vicinity, promoting the earlier treatment of mental disease. The broader scope of research activities already vigorously at work in many insane hospitals would hold out greater hope of advancement, an inducement to new workers and more permanent service.

THE ASYLUM

would receive the chronic infirm, dangerous and untrustworthy. Its main purpose would be humane care, safe custody, palliative treatment, interest in the patient's personality rather than disease entity, and provision for the amenities, diversions and occupations which break the monotony of institutional life, an economical but enlightened order, much simplified by the elimination of higher hospital requirements. There would be need of compact arrangement of buildings, suitable for the classification of patients manifesting every form of mental disorder, and medical equipment sufficient for their alleviation according to the best methods. Ordinary medical capacity and training, however, would be equal to the task, so that executive ability of physicians would be paramount in dealing with the economic problems arising from large numbers, probably not less than fifty per cent. of the totality of inmates of all departments—some 1,000 patients.

Here would be the headquarters of business, financial, clerical, commissary, mechanical and, in part, industrial, necessitating near-by residence of the general superintendent for his convenience and close touch with the department whose need of restrictive discipline would render it most liable to abuses.

THE COLONY

would take from the closed asylum the harmless patients suitable for greater liberty and capable, in variable degree, of industrial re-education. In its simple dwellings, arranged in small and separate groups according to their condition, occupation and character of training, they would find the nearest approach to a home, its comforts and freedom.

The chief aim of the colony would be the utilization of the enormous waste of physical energy latent in the host of idle dements, unused because of mental torpor, damaged brains and weakened powers of application, but capable of quickening, partial regeneration and re-development into useful activity. Although the labor of patients with initiative and of others easily induced to perform common duties is quite generally and fully employed, the great task of re-education of the stupid dement is practically untouched so far as it demands special organization, painstaking training and persistency, comparable in a measure to the efforts and methods of industrial education of the congenitally defective and feeble-minded and promising as great return in production and happiness to patients, fully equivalent to the additional outlay for teachers and attendants.

Here again a simplified and productive regime, applicable to about forty per cent., or 800, of the aggregate of inmates of the whole institution, would effect a further pecuniary saving in the interest of better treatment and study of the curable in the hospital.

The hospital and asylum are more closely related to each other than to the colony, which might have any convenient location within a radius of many miles, if necessary to procure a large tract of wild land, rough and stony at the outset, but fertile and diversified in quality after reduction to tillage by the labor of patients. A limited central organization with a resourceful physician at the head would co-ordinate the numerous small, separate farmsteads and industrial groups, each complete in its home equipment and interests and managed by a good farmer or mechanic, whose wife should be its house mother. These centers should be mutually independent but responsible to the resident physician.

Some may fear that such an order would be expensive, an outcome inevitable if applied to an unsuitable class of patients, such as those requiring strict oversight and much paid attendance. The

prerequisites of success are absence of the necessity of more than ordinary supervision, propriety of comparative freedom, capacity for self-help, and the probability of productive labor. It should also be kept in mind that the useful application of labor especially to the current needs of the institution should take precedence of any production for the outside market or mere occupation and diversion of colonists.

These general principles are equally applicable to the care, classification and training of the feeble-minded and the epileptic, if the school and manual training be added to the hospital equipment, with slight modification of the colony and custodial regimes in adaptation to their special needs.

COMMUNITY ASPECT OF DEALING WITH THE INSANE.

Important as always must be the institutional aspect of dealing with the insane, no less so is the community aspect, presenting the urgency of early treatment of incipient mental disease before the legal declaration of insanity, and the terminal needs of the insane after dismissal from asylum care.

EARLY TREATMENT OF MENTAL DISEASE.

Insanity has its beginning in the individual of the family under the eye of the general practitioner, who alone, as a rule, may foresee its possibility and forestall its development by preventive counsel, or, recognizing its early manifestations, prescribe curative measures during the most hopeful period. Such exclusive opportunity is usually lost either because the general practitioner has not been well taught in mental diseases at the medical school and has not had clinical demonstration of their early symptoms, or because the scanty means of the poor will not permit home treatment and public facilities for the cure of acute diseases have been denied the mental patient.

The requirement before admission to the insane hospital is twofold: (1) competency of the general practitioner through adequate instruction in mental diseases in the medical school and hospital clinic, (2) sufficiency of public provision for the treatment of incipient mental disease to relieve the necessities of the poor.

ADEQUACY OF CLINICAL TEACHING

with reference to confirmed insanity might be had in the development of the hospital unit of the composite institution before described, but the observation of the early symptoms of mental disease on any large scale would still be impossible. The correlation of mental with physical disease is possible, and the application of similar methods of treatment appropriate, so long as the voluntary relation may be continued.

TREATMENT OF MENTAL DISEASE IN GENERAL HOSPITALS.

Prior to the necessity of forcible detention of a mental patient, his exclusion from a special department of the general hospital for acute physical diseases is neither necessary nor justifiable. Initial derangement of the mind of short duration should not bear the stigma of confirmed insanity. The aversion of the patient and his friends to the idea of insanity precludes his early treatment so long as it necessitates association with an insane hospital regime, however enlightened. Humanitarian as well as economic reasons impel to such relief of the poor. Thereby the student of medicine might become familiar with mental disease as he will meet it in general practice. The general practitioner might become competent to treat it and find it practicable to do so with such public facilities, and would avert many insane commitments. Mark the limitation of such treatment to the voluntary period, while the patient is willing or may be tactfully persuaded to co-operate with his caretakers. The special hospital for acute and curable insanity is not to be supplanted nor the functions of the general hospital perverted. This work is supplementary to both, and, otherwise, largely remains undone.

FAMILY CARE OF THE INSANE.

The second and last phase of community care relates to the insane who recover or become suitable to resume the ordinary relations of life, either alone or under supervision. The great beneficence of the institution must receive grateful recognition, but it represents a special order, a necessity, not a choice; the inalienable right of the individual to "liberty and the pursuit of happiness" imposes the obligation on the strong to help the weak to that end.

The increase of occurring insanity accounts for less than one-

third the accumulation of insane in institutions; sluggishness of outflow, more than two-thirds. Aside from the erection of reasonable safeguards against careless or malicious commitment, the door of the insane hospital should swing wide open to the mentally sick without undue obstruction by legal formalities or parsimony; but, if the barriers of admission be lowered, the hospital physician must assume a graver responsibility in determining the definite need and limit of detention. Should a patient's condition and conduct, the public safety and welfare or the good of posterity require, restraint should be continued, but incapacity for self-support, lack of friends and means, possibility of relapse and undue discrimination against the individual in favor of the community on theoretical grounds, should not prevent release, unless there should be actual failure after trial. To this end, persistent, systematized effort should be directed. Such is the province of family care of the chronic and harmless insane. It affords them a chance to prove suitability for ordinary life, to show capacity for usefulness, to dispel apprehensive forebodings of friends and employers, to change an unfavorable environment which has caused relapse, to find industrial opportunity, and to win a new footing which may be held with some hope of permanency, if friendly advice and help are forthcoming in time of stress.

The insane are unstable and deceptive as to their tendencies. Every form of their care may be attended with danger. The public, in whose midst insanity develops and relapses of the recovered supervene, can not be guaranteed absolute security. Family care has its possibilities of danger and abuses. It demands insight, precaution and unremitting watchfulness lest abuses creep in, but experience has shown that, under these conditions, it may be undertaken with benefit to the patient and due respect to the rights of the public.

AFTER CARE OF THE INSANE.

There comes a time, however, in the course of family care, when some patients, who have proven their capability of resuming life's duties, desire to be free from official oversight and all associations reminding them of insanity. They appreciate and are grateful for the old friendship and help, and would return if in distress, but they wish to seek rather than to be sought. These must go out alone usually. Some recovered patients must leave the hospitals without friends, means or employment. Both stand in urgent need

of friendly interest and timely response with aid and advice to tide over temporary disabilities. The after-care association, without official connection with the insane and free from the stigma of insanity, would fill this great want.

J. M. Buckley.
Henry C. Eyman, M. D.
J. L. Greene, M. D.
Robert Gilliam.
Emil G. Hirsch, D. D.
O. R. Long, M. D.
R. W. Bruce Smith, M. D.
W. P. Spratling, M. D.
H. A. Tomlinson, M. D.
Owen Copp, M. D., Chairman.

Three members of the committee dissent from the report, in part, as follows:

George F. Edenharter, M. D., of Indiana: "In the main the report meets with my approval, but I wish to be recorded as protesting against the suggestion for a state board of insanity, and ask that whatever may be done with the report I be recorded in the negative upon that proposition.

"I am unalterably opposed to boards of control (having jurisdiction over all of the institutions), the so-called lunacy commissions, boards of insanity, with any kind of authority (advisory, supervisory or otherwise), over the individual institutional boards, and every other board or department of like character."*

M. L. Perry, M. D., of Kansas: "I thoroughly endorse all contained in the report with the exception of the system of management. I do not favor the system outlined of a state board, with local boards for the various institutions. My idea of the proper management of the state charities is as follows: There should be for small or medium states a single board of three or not more than five members, known as board of control or state board of charities, who would have control of all the purely charitable institutions. In the more populous states this board could be relieved of all institutions except the insane, epileptic and imbecile, while the other state charities, such as schools for the deaf, blind, reform schools, etc., could be classed along with the educational institutions.

"This board should be appointed by the governor, be ratified by the senate, should be salaried officers, and should be required to give

*Dr. Edenharter later explained that the above objection to Boards does not apply to a Board of State Charities such as that of his state, which Board he considers of decided value to the institutions and to the public.—Editor.

their entire time to the work. They should have the appointment of a superintendent for each of the institutions, but all other appointments of officers and employes should be by the superintendent. In this way we have authority going hand in hand with responsibility, and each individual in the state service would have a definite responsibility upon him. Both the board and the local officers and employes should be prohibited by law from exercising political influence of any kind with other officers or employes in the state's service."

G. S. Robinson, of Iowa: "The report in the main, I think, is very full and satisfactory. However, I beg to suggest some conclusions you set out, to which I can not fully assent.

"The first is in regard to your method of dealing with various state institutions by means of local boards subject to supervision by a central board. I approve the idea of a central board something like the board of control of state institutions of this state and similar boards in Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kansas, South Dakota and Washington. There is no local board in the systems of these various states as I understand them. Certainly there is none in this state, and I think that the local board should be omitted from the plan of government. It may be that there should be some means of appeal from the decisions of the state board to the governor or some other authority. Of course the central or state board, under the system suggested, should devote its entire time to the work. In the larger states such a board for each class of institutions might be necessary, but in states of smaller population, such as this state and many others, one board could manage quite a number of different institutions without trouble. The state board of this state now has fourteen institutions, and will soon have another under its care, and the system has worked to the great benefit of the institutions and with satisfaction to the state.

"Second, I agree with your general proposition that the duties of managing a large institution are too great to be vested in the head. However, I incline to the view that the head should be a skilled physician who gives his time chiefly to the professional part of the work, and that the business of the institution can be done by a cheaper but an able man, and that the business man should be appointed by the head and be subject to his control. However, I do not feel quite so certain as to this proposition as I do in regard to the first one.

"Third, I incline to the view that the acute insane should be sent to properly organized hospitals especially designed for the treatment of the insane as soon as the insanity appears, rather than to be sent to a general hospital, as the experience in this state is that much is lost, including prospect for recovery in many cases, by reason of delay in placing the patients in a properly equipped hospital. This is caused largely by the unwillingness of the relatives to admit the insanity of the patient and to their hope of cure without having the patient adjudged to be insane and committed in the regular way. It is possible that your plan to have these cases treated in the first instance in some local hospital for general diseases would be an improvement over the present conditions, but I would urge that the commitment to the special hospital should be secured at the earliest moment in most cases."

Gustav Kustermann, of Wisconsin, the one remaining member of the committee, being absent in Europe, could not be reached and has not reviewed the report.

HOSPITALS FOR THE ACUTE AND RECOVERABLE INSANE.

ALBERT M. BARRETT, M. D., DIRECTOR OF THE STATE PSYCHOPATHIC HOSPITAL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

It must be gratifying to those who are interested in the care of the insane to see the progress along medical lines which the institutions have made in recent years. Institutions have grown to be something more than custodial asylums, and the fact that the care and treatment of insanity is largely a medical problem now dominates the policies which are followed in the extension of the state's attitude toward the insane. It is unfortunate that this principle was not better appreciated when the provisions which the state should make for the insane were first formulated. For had it been, many of the difficulties we are now concerned with, as to how the best ideas of hospital treatment can be adapted to our existing organizations, would be minimized.

I think it will be agreed to by all of those who are familiar with the subject, that the growth of the idea of special hospitals for the observation and treatment of insanity in its early and acute forms

is the direct result of the unusual interest in psychiatry in this country during the last dozen years, a sort of renaissance period, and has developed along with the more scientific point of view which is now dominant in so many of our asylums for the insane. While new to this country, institutions such as the University Clinic of Psychiatry have long been established abroad. As medical men in our asylums gained an enthusiastic interest in psychiatry, and sought European training, it was quite natural that on their again taking up their work at home they should appreciate the lack of facilities for the training of physicians in the subject of psychiatry in our medical schools and the impossibility of carrying on a satisfactory observation, study, and treatment of insanity under the ordinary conditions present in our asylums. With the growth of this feeling came the appreciation of the need for separate institutions, specially designed for the care and observation of acute forms of mental diseases, equipped with laboratories and the best facilities for study and treatment, and to these institutions the designation of Psychopathic Hospitals has been applied.

One must be familiar with the situation in this country to clearly appreciate the need for the hospital for acute cases of mental disease. While our institutions for the care of the insane have developed, so that now in their administrative, custodial and economic features, they have reached a high plane, in this growth the fact that the study and treatment of insanity is essentially a medical subject sometimes has been lost sight of, and facilities for the best observation and treatment of patients have not been provided, and the medical spirit is far from being what it should.

In considering the need of special hospitals and the position which they must occupy in a state's organization for the care of the insane, it will be best to gain an idea as to the medical problems of insanity.

Under the term insanity are grouped a variety of disturbances of the mind, which differ from one another in their mode of origin, the course which they follow, and their termination. As illustrations of this we know that certain types of insanity are related to certain specific causes. Some types, almost irrespective of special treatment, are known to recover after a shorter or longer duration. Some types in the beginning have more or less acute features which subside and the individual is left in a permanent state of

mental weakness. Others from the beginning pursue a steady progressive mental deterioration. Some types end fatally, others seem to have little influence on the duration of life. From these few observations it must be evident how different are the problems of the treatment and care of the insane, and how varied must be the provisions which an institution must make. It is not always an easy matter to recognize at the beginning just what form of mental disease a patient may have. Such a fact can sometimes be determined only after a long period of observation and by the use of special diagnostic methods needing special facilities. Yet it is essential to have at hand and be able to apply any or all of the methods which medical research and experience have shown to be of value. If it has been shown that certain mental diseases may be recognized and cured by special means, how wrong it is if these means are unprovided.

A very important problem which must be met relates to provisions made for the commiting and care of the curable insane. It is undesirable to send any patients who will recover from their mental disturbance into surroundings which will embarrass them during their residence or in their life after recovery. The avoidance of these can best be met by sending them under special provisions to hospitals separate from asylums for the insane.

The care of the acute and recoverable cases presents very different problems from those relating to patients who will never get well. It is an unfortunate fact that a large number of cases of insanity will not recover. With these the problems are to furnish them with the best treatment for their physical and mental conditions which modern medicine can offer, to give them comfortable care, and by education and occupation attempt to check mental deterioration, and make them as useful to the state as possible.

Apart from the treatment and care of both recoverable and nonrecoverable patients, every institution has a duty to perform in furthering our knowledge of the disease. The spirit of scientific investigation should be the directing force of its medical work, not alone for its immediate benefit to the patient, but as a contribution to the broad field of medicine with the ultimate aim of giving us a clearer point of view regarding mental diseases in all their aspects, and of showing means to prevent the occurrence of these unfortunate conditions.

Appreciating the desirability of special facilities for the ob-

servation and treatment of the acute and recoverable insane, we are confronted with the difficulties which come with the attempt to introduce these features into the existing systems for the care of the insane—systems complex in their organization and made up of institutions controlled by administrative forces, each with different ideas as to how the problem may be worked out, and unable to get together in harmonious co-operation, or, if so, powerless, on account of their inability to gain legislative support. On account of these and other difficulties various schemes have been proposed and different organizations established. At the present time we find the following plans for the establishment of special hospital arrangements for the acute and recoverable insane:

I. A Psychopathic Hospital as an integral part of each asylum organization. This is illustrated in the newly built hospital buildings at many asylums, such buildings being organized along modern hospital lines, with laboratory facilities and utilized in connection with medical work carried on with a keen scientific point of view.

II. A Psychopathic Hospital as a special institution in the state's organization, in more or less intimate relations with the asylums of the state, such an institution, with its laboratories and administration, having a guiding influence on the medical work in the various asylums. This idea has shaped itself along two lines:

First—A Psychopathic Hospital located at one of the state asylums, and yet being a central institution for all. This is at present the situation in New York and is the plan proposed in Illinois.

Second—A Psychopathic Hospital in connection with the seats of medical instruction, but at the same time a central institution for the various state asylums. This idea approaches the plan of the German University Psychiatrical Clinics, and is illustrated in the Psychopathic Hospital at the University of Michigan.

III. A third plan is to arrange wards or departments of a general hospital for the special care and observation of mental diseases, as illustrated in Pavilion F at Albany.

In any plans which may be proposed for the establishment and administration of hospitals for the acute and curable insane certain essential conditions must be provided for.

The first object is to provide hospital accommodations where the mentally disturbed may be cared for according to the best stand-

ards of modern hygiene and where they may receive all of the advantages in methods of treatment which have proved of value in medical and surgical practice. Such hospitals should be under the charge of physicians who are fitted for their work by special training. The spirit of scientific investigation should be the directing force in its medical work.

Second—The provisions under which patients may seek treatment in such hospitals and under which they may be held there should be framed and administered in such a way as to keep the patient as free as possible from the embarrassments which legal processes necessitate, at the same time giving those in charge authority to hold their patients in sufficient control to make their treatment effective and insure discipline. The character of these hospitals, and the conditions under which the patient was resident, should be such that, after recovery and their return to civil life, they should feel no more embarrassment than if they had been physically sick, and a patient in a general hospital.

Third—Such hospitals should have provisions for the admission and special care of persons who are mentally disturbed but who are not committable as insane—such states as one includes under the terms psychopathic conditions, neurasthenia and hysteria.

Ideas must differ in the way these problems must be met, and as to which of the plans now followed is best. But whether the hospital is located independently of a state asylum, or whether it is to be specially arranged departments of an asylum, certain general features may be mentioned as their organization and arrangement. The size of the building as relates to the number of patients to be accommodated, and whether separate buildings should be provided for each sex, are matters of detail which must depend upon the necessities and the amount of money available. I see no reason why one institution should not answer all of the requirements for both sexes, especially where the hospital is not to be a part of an asylum.

In the arrangement of the hospital it is best to have as many ward divisions as are needed to give ample opportunities for the separation of patients according to special needs. Provision should at least be made for separate wards for the following classes: 1, noisy and turbulent patients; 2, depressed patients; 3, mildly restless patients; 4, convalescent patients; 5, patients who are mentally disturbed but are not committed as insane; 6, infirmary wards for patients bedridden from physical illness.

The arrangement and furnishing of the wards will depend upon the class of patients to be cared for. The arrangements should approach as nearly as possible to the standards of hygiene and administration of the best modern general hospitals. Whatever experience and medical research has found of value in the treatment of the insane should be made available. All wards of such a special hospital as we are considering should be in charge of nurses, or attendants, who have by training and experience shown special fitness for their position. All of the best which any hospital has should be centered on the care of the acutely insane and recoverable patients. The lines of classification in acute stages of mental disease should be made more upon the conduct of patients than upon the question of their being curable or incurable.

In the care of the excited patients, mechanical restraints and powerful mixtures of quieting medicines should be replaced by the prolonged bath, watchful supervision by as many nurses as are needed to bring the desired results, and by medicines which can be administered with as perfect control as possible. When patients are isolated in rooms they should always be under observation. Ventilation and cleanliness should be all that could be desired. The wards for the excited and boisterous patients should be removed from the quieter patients so as to prevent any disturbance of their comfort.

The treatment of acutely depressed patients differs in many points from the care of excited patients. Here watchfulness against self-injury, freedom from depressing influences, quietness, and special facilities for feeding are demanded. Both patients who have been excited and those who have been depressed, during convalescence, should be removed from the wards where they were treated at the beginning to surroundings more cheerful, approaching more a home-like arrangement, with abundant light and facilities for exercise and all that can be done to prevent homesickness and discontent at a time when they still need careful hospital treatment.

The arrangements for the mentally disturbed, non-committable patients should partake more of hospital features, with as complete a separation as possible from patients whose conduct and attitude may in any way act harmfully on them. Such patients are in the beginning best treated in bed and in more or less isolation, seeing only their physicians and nurses and under conditions

where psychotherapy can be carried on in a satisfactory way, and where the suggestive influences of the physicians may not be interfered with.

In an institution where any considerable number of patients are cared for there will be patients suffering, in addition to their mental trouble, with physical diseases—medical or surgical—whose treatment necessitates other arrangements than we have been considering. These should be provided for in infirmaries, with arrangements for asepsis, isolation and the special features which such cases demand.

As facilities for treatment of a variety of conditions, there should be provided arrangements for adequate hydrotherapeutic treatment, apparatus for massage and mechanical exercising and the rational use of electricity.

The culinary department of the special hospital should be a separate kitchen with facilities for the preparation of special diets. The question of economy in management should not prevent the providing of any diet which may be advisable from a medical standpoint. Much can be done in special feeding of patients taking insufficient nourishment. The question of recovery in many cases is one of feeding.

Every such institution as we have been considering should have in connection with it laboratories for clinical diagnosis and for research into the phenomena of insanity. These laboratories should be thoroughly equipped with apparatus to carry on the work and should be under the direction of some physician who has had special training in laboratory technique and who should be familiar with the clinical and pathological problems of mental diseases. Unless the one in charge of such laboratories has these qualities, and the proper point of view, the work will fall far short of its possibilities. The physicians who are in charge of the treatment of the patients in the acute hospitals must have at hand the laboratory aids for clinical diagnosis, and for the special problems of the diagnosis of nervous diseases. Few classes of cases in the field of medicine will call into use more varied lines of examination than acute cases of mental diseases. For while mental diseases are brain diseases, they are often associated with physical diseases, and may result from diseases of the body, of various sorts, such as the deliria of infectious diseases and states of exhaustion.

In the pursuit of scientific research into the phenomena of men-

tal diseases, the work will be guided largely by the interest of the director, the material at hand and the problems of the present day.

Insanity is a disease of the mind and its clinical manifestations are the problems of abnormal psychology. When analyzed, every case of mental disease shows disturbances of one or several fields of psychological expression. These can be best studied in the psychological laboratory, where the experimental methods of the laboratory can be utilized in acquiring accurate scientific data of the processes which are familiar to us clinically. The greatest progress that has been made in recent years in giving us a better understanding of some of the clinical symptoms of mental diseases has come from the careful psychological analysis of these symptoms and at the present time the most hopeful fields for work in psychiatry lie along these same lines.

In addition to the clinical diagnostic and the psychological laboratory, provision should be made for the study of the anatomical material which may be available from post mortem examinations. Research into the structural alterations of the nervous system which underlie the disturbances of physiological functions is one of the most fruitful fields for work. It is the class of work which must bring the changes in the classifications of functional and organic diseases. The changes from the one group to the other will increase as we acquire better methods of technique and are better able to interpret our findings. For some time there have been established certain constant and characteristic structural changes in the nervous system in certain clinical conditions. One can now speak of a histological process of general paralysis, of arteriosclerosis of the brain, and less certainly of some others. The opportunity to corroborate or overthrow a clinical diagnosis by the anatomical findings in the brain will be a valuable addition to the experience of the physicians who treat the patients clinically.

In the foregoing I have attempted to bring together the different provisions which the hospital for acute and curable forms of mental diseases should have. Any such hospital should have arrangements for the removal or transfer of any case when it may be thought advisable. The greater number of cases of insanity sooner or later pass into terminal states of dementia or chronic conditions whose treatment can be just as well conducted and at less cost by all of our state asylums. Where these special hospitals are located as a part of an asylum plant, this transfer of patients is

quite easy. It is known to all who are concerned with the care of the insane that many so-called chronic cases, at times during their course, show just as acute symptoms of excitement as other cases at the beginning of their disease. Such patients then become a very disturbing factor in their environment, and if they must remain there, the ordinary facilities of the ward are taxed, and mechanical restraint and isolation are too often brought into play. If the disturbed patient could be moved at once to a hospital specially arranged to meet the acute symptoms which have appeared, it would be better both for the administration of the ward and for the patient.

As to which plan of those mentioned earlier in this paper is the best for the establishment and organization of these acute hospitals there may be discussion. Personally, I feel that while every asylum should have special provisions for the care and study of the acute cases, it is best that somewhere in the state there should be a separate Psychopathic Hospital and that this should be located in relation with a center of medical instruction, but at the same time it should have a very intimate relation with the entire state's system for the care of the insane. It is my fortune to be connected with such an institution, which is, I believe, the first Psychiatrical Hospital and Clinic to be established in this country.

It may be familiar to some of this Conference that there was established by legislative acts of 1901 and 1905 a Psychopathic Hospital at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. Its legal title, viz: "The Psychopathic Ward of the University of Michigan Hospital," is a little misleading, for it is in every way a complete institution in itself. It was largely through the personal efforts and unflagging interest of the late Dr. William J. Herdman, for many years professor of mental and nervous diseases in the university, that it was established.

The legislature of 1901 authorized an appropriation of $50,000 for the erection of a building to accommodate forty patients. Further grants were made by the regents of the university and an appropriation by the legislature of 1905, so that when completed and equipped its cost was about $72,000. Provisions were made for its management by placing it in control of a committee composed of one representative from the board of trustees of each asylum and an equal number from the board of regents of the state university. In this way a very happy arrangement was provided

for combining the interests of the asylums and the university. Its executive officer was elected by this committee, and, with the approval of the university regents, held the position of associate professor of neural pathology in the medical department and was in charge of the instruction in psychiatry. The statute provided that the director should be the pathologist of the state asylums for the insane, and prescribed as his duties, to guide and direct the pathological work in the several asylums. As a part of the institution there was to be maintained a clinical pathological laboratory of research, and, for its maintenance and the payment of salaries of the director and his assistant physicians, an annual appropriation of $5,000 was made available.

The original provisions under which the psychopathic ward was established left many situations unprovided for, and there has just been passed by the Michigan legislature a bill which repeals the former acts and provides that the institution shall be a special state institution to be known as the State Psychopathic Hospital at the University of Michigan. The laws for its control and administration are framed as nearly as possible like the provisions for the state asylums, but there are special provisions for the admission and discharge of patients and their support.

Its control is vested in a board of eight trustees, four of whom are elected from the separate boards of trustees of the state asylums and four from the board of regents of the State University. The duties and powers of these trustees are the same as trustees of the state asylums. They elect a director of the Psychopathic Hospital, who bears the same relations and has many of the same duties as a superintendent of a state asylum, but, in addition, he is pathologist of the state asylums for the insane, and as such he is to guide and advise regarding the scientific work in the several asylums of the state, and with the approval of the board of regents of the State University he is professor of psychiatry in the medical department of the university.

In connection with the hospital are laboratories of research, which are central laboratories for the state asylums.

Patients are admitted to the Psychopathic Hospital under the following provisions:

I. Any person who is insane may be admitted to the State Psychopathic Hospital whenever, in the opinion of the examining physicians and the judge of probate, the case presents features

which render treatment there more advisable than in one of the state asylums, but before a patient can be sent to the Psychopathic Hospital the consent of the director of the hospital must be obtained.

II. When, during the hearing as to the insanity of a person, it may seem advisable to the court, on account of doubt as to the sanity or insanity of a person, or, if for any reason, a permanent order of insanity is inadvisable, or if the insanity is due to physical conditions which may be treated by the clinical physicians of the general hospitals of the university, the hearing may be continued for a period not longer than thirty-five days, and the person may be sent to the State Psychopathic Hospital, there confined, observed, and treated. Before the expiration of the period, the results of the observation and treatment shall be reported to the judge of probate. If the observation has shown that the person was insane, then the court may complete the hearing and commit the person as insane to the Psychopathic Hospital or any asylum he may think best. If the observation has shown that the person was sane, then the person shall be discharged from the hospital.

III. Persons who are mentally disturbed but not insane may be admitted to the Psychopathic Hospital as voluntary private patients, at the discretion of the director.

IV. The superintendent of any state asylum may transfer any patient to the Psychopathic Hospital whenever in his opinion the patient may be benefited by such transfer. In all orders committing patients to the Psychopathic Hospital it shall be stated that if the patient does not recover after a satisfactory period of observation and treatment, he shall be transferred to one of the state asylums for the insane.

All expenses for the care of public patients shall be paid by the state, and during the first year of their residence the state shall collect from the county of which the patients were resident the same amount which the county would have paid if the patient had been sent to a state asylum.

The rate for private patients is fixed by the board of trustees.

Provision is made for the instruction of the medical students of the University in diseases of the mind, and for the payment of salaries and the work of research an annual appropriation of $10,000 is made.

While the provisions for the future management of the State

Psychopathic Hospital differ in detail from those under which it has been conducted until now, it may be of interest to describe briefly the work during the past year.

The field of work planned for the Psychopathic Hospital was along four lines: First, the care, observation and treatment of patients; second, clinical and anatomical research into the phenomena of mental diseases; third, instruction of medical students; fourth, the establishment and maintenance of a co-operative work between the asylums of the state and the Psychopathic Hospital.

As regards the first of these, viz: that relating to the care of patients, it was found possible, under the conditions present and with such a limited number, to carry on thorough clinical studies. The institution was equipped with a complete hydrotherapeutic apparatus and it has been used extensively as an aid in treatment. As a result of the experiences of the first year in the relative values of treatment in such an institution and the asylums, it is difficult to draw any far-reaching conclusions. The great advantage, however, as far as the patients were concerned, was that of the 100 patients under treatment during the year, thirty-six patients suffering from mental diseases were able to receive treatment and be discharged as recovered or much improved without having the experience of having been committed to an insane asylum and were placed in as nearly as possible the same condition as if they were suffering from a physical disease.

As regards the second part of the work—that of clinical and pathological research—it was not thought best to undertake any special problem at the beginning, except to carefully and systematically work up, with an appreciation of the problems of neuropathology, all of the anatomical material which was sent to the laboratory from the asylums, in those cases in which the clinical studies had been thorough enough to make any findings valuable, being confident that problems worthy of further pursuit would shape themselves as material was collected. Already this has been the case, and several pieces of anatomical pathological research are under way. The extension of laboratory work along biological and chemical lines are possibilities which will come up as the work grows and the right workers are available. From its close relation with the university it is planned that students of the scientific or medical departments may be provided with material and facilities for the pursuit of research work, for which credit should be

given in the university. Already this feature has been started, and for the greater part of the year a graduate student has been working with the application of psychological analysis of all cases which would lend themselves to such work.

The feature of the instruction of medical students was one of the most important and interesting possibilities of the new work. During the last semester of the school year weekly clinics were given before the students of the senior class. The aim was to apply to psychiatrical instruction the same methods of clinical demonstration and lectures which are followed in other clinical branches of medical instruction. One had, however, to realize the specialized character of the work, the preparation of the medical student for gaining the clinical point of view of the psychiatrist, and the new class of symptoms which the student must consider. In a limited required course of study the main aim must be to develop in the student a correct point of view on which to build his later experience with cases of mental diseases, and to emphasize above all the element of correct diagnosis, which at the present time in psychiatry almost invariably makes the prognosis, to appreciate the limitations of home treatment and to train him to make a clear, comprehensive medical description of what is present in a case.

While at the present time so much in the field of psychiatry is unsettled, and points of view differ so widely, we still have a great deal of sound, well-grounded experience and a clear conception of certain clinical types which can be presented to the student from the standpoint of their etiology, their course and outcome, as strongly as is the case in certain diseases taught in the medical clinics. In the conduct of the instruction in psychiatry at the Psychopathic Hospital, it was found possible, with the amount of material present during the year, to present before the class several cases of each of the commoner types of mental diseases, and to allow each student to study the patients at the bedside and to prepare a careful examination and medical record with differential diagnosis of several cases.

That part of the work of the psychopathic ward relating to the establishment and maintenance of a harmonious and helpful cooperation between the asylums and itself, has, I think, been worked out quite satisfactorily and the institution has shown its usefulness as a part of a state system for the care of the insane. Without any dictatorial position, it has been found possible to interest the

asylums and to enlist their co-operation. The plan adopted was for each institution to strive to develop its own medical work to the point of highest efficiency and to place the psychopathic ward in the position of an institution to which all could look for guidance and stimulation in the development and conduct of its medical work. It was to be an institution at which the assistant physicians of the asylums could receive special training in clinical and laboratory work, and where they could pursue research problems. It was to have a laboratory to which they could send anatomical material for study, and from this their own clinical records and experiences be completed, and, perhaps more than all, it should be an institution which could act with a unifying influence in a state organization of institutions with elevated ideas but varying points of view. In the achievement of this end the director of the psychopathic ward as pathologist of the state asylums, visited the various institutions from time to time, and for one month each asylum sent an assistant physician to the psychopathic ward for instruction in clinical and laboratory work. All of the various asylums adopted a system of case study and recording similar to that at the psychopathic ward. At each institution one man was familiarized with the technique of autopsy making and the preparation of material and during the first year material from over 100 autopsies was sent to the laboratory of the psychopathic ward.

Suffice it to say, that at the end of the year the medical work at each asylum has reached a higher plane and there has been a harmonious and systematized co-operation between the asylums and the psychopathic ward.

In reviewing the first year's experiences in connection with the psychopathic ward certain conclusions can be drawn which may be of interest as bearing on the general subject of special hospitals for acute and recoverable cases of mental diseases.

One of these is that it will be inadvisable to limit such an institution to what one regards as psychopathic conditions in a strict sense, that is, to persons who are not insane, but are afflicted with such conditions as hysteria, neurasthenia, and the psychasthenias, etc. It will be found, if the institution is to be limited to such conditions, that, while these cases are numerous enough, they do not seek hospital treatment in any sufficient numbers to fill the capacity of an institution. They are a very difficult and in general an unsatisfactory class of cases to treat, and the conditions on

which the symptoms develop are so inherent in their constitution that results of treatment are often not permanent. They are also a difficult class of cases to keep in an institution long enough to carry out any course of treatment that will be worth while. Under present conditions of society they cannot be held in confinement by judicial order. If the institution is to be a research hospital, then with such cases alone the field of work will be too much restricted. It also becomes a very difficult matter to determine whether or not many of these patients are insane. Many of them while under treatment will develop into conditions which are unquestionably insane, and there results the situation that both non-insane and insane must be kept in the same institution. From this it is our conviction that the class of hospitals under consideration must be arranged to care for any form of mental disturbance. It will reach its greatest usefulness as a receiving hospital for all forms of mental disease in earlier stages, and also for any abnormal mental condition which could not be regarded as one of insanity, but which needs hospital treatment, and when fully equipped according to the best standards for study and treatment and teaching.

POSSIBILITIES OF THE COLONY.

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Nearly twenty years ago Dr. Fish, Mr. Johnson and Dr. Knight presented papers on the subject of the "Colony Plan" before this Conference. The success of certain European institutions, partially or wholly founded on the colony plan, prepared the way for experiments of that sort in America.

I can best illustrate what is meant by the "Colony Plan," a rather overworked term, by first describing our own institution colony, prefacing this description by a brief statement of some of the conditions which led to the establishment of the colony.

The Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded is a conventional institution for defectives, following the methods of training and instruction which have been developed since the days of Seguin. The education of the defective begins with special sense training—teaching the child to see, to smell, to hear, to feel, and to taste. Motor training, in the broadest sense, is perhaps the most im-

portant factor in the education of the defective. The motor training may begin with placing a stone in the unwilling hands of the patient, closing his fingers about the stone, walking with him from one stone pile to another stone pile, and relaxing his fingers to allow the stone to drop in the second pile. This sort of thing, repeated day after day, in company with other boys performing the same exercises, stimulated by what he sees, assisted by the power of imitation, perhaps eventually teaches him to pick up a stone and to drop it in the pile of his own accord. I give this illustration because it illustrates the lowest form of motor training.

From this beginning, according to the ability and capacity of the patient, he is led through a maze of complicated requirements in the way of motor response, stimulated and assisted by music and rhythm, and by the sight of his mates doing the same thing at the same time. In every way possible his flagging powers of attention and perception are stimulated and aroused. If he proves teachable to that extent, his capacity for motor response is turned to some practical account. Instead of picking up the stone from the formal pile he goes off into the field and assists in clearing the rough land, or he is taught to use the grub hoe, to dig potatoes, to plant corn, etc. He is taught a rational form of manual labor.

The brighter class of the feeble-minded, as you know, receive a more advanced form of industrial training. All the resources of the sloyd system and other highly-elaborated methods of motor training are brought into play. The patient is taught to knit and to weave. He is taught to plant beans and corn. He is taught to select and destroy the weed and to allow the onion to remain. He is taught to distinguish between the leaves of the beet and the leaves of the noxious weed.

At the same time, these children are given all the advantages of scholastic training, as far as they are capable of receiving it. As they grow older their trained motor abilities are applied practically.

Some ten years ago we awoke to the fact that our institution was like a lake with many inlets and no outlet. We were appalled to find that instead of a school, our institution was rapidly becoming a receptacle for chronic adult imbeciles, trained as far as we were able to the extent of their capacity. It was difficult to discharge them. They were capable, but there was no opporunity to exercise the trained capacity. Some of these trained cases are capable of doing a man's work under direction. Some of them

could do a half, or a third, or a quarter, or an eighth of a man's work. All our rough land was cleared up and our rough work was finished. We had utilized these patients in the development of our own estate.

As a solution of this very practical difficulty, our Trustees purchased in the northern central part of the state a large tract of land, some 2,000 acres, having an area roughly three miles long and a mile wide. This tract included several hills with the valleys between, a fair sized brook or small river, with several water powers, timber, wood, gravel, sand and building stone. The area selected was sixty-one miles from the parent school, because so large a tract of land with the required natural resources was not available nearer the school. It is located on the same line of railroad, three miles from the station. This distance from the railroad station did not seem to us a detriment.

Our idea was to purchase so large a tract of land that our patients might feel that they owned a large area; that they might be given a great amount of liberty; that they might be allowed to roam this vast estate without bars or bolts, locks or guards.

We selected fertile land—"abandoned farms," if you please. In New England, we mean by this, the type of old-fashioned farm where the boys and girls go to the city, and when the old folks die, no one wants to go back in the country to live, so the farm is put on the market.

We purchased this land very cheaply—the tract of 2,000 acres costing a little less than $10 per acre. The land had been neglected. It had grown up to bushes and vines and gradually almost passed out of tillage. This area embraced seven large farms, with seven sets of old buildings.

To this area we transferred from the school in the summer of 1899 fifty of the trained adult inmates. During that summer these patients busied themselves in the preparation of the permanent farm group. They dug cellars for dormitory buildings; they dug wells for the water supply; they put in the sewage plant and performed the other work necessary to fit one of these farms for permanent occupancy.

At the end of the summer, we had completed the repairs on one of these farm dwellings; we had added a large kitchen and a large dining-room for the boys at the rear of the old farm house; we had built two dormitories, each a plain one-story wooden structure, with

accommodations for twenty-five boys. In each dormitory there were three outside doors, many windows, and a large brick fireplace.

The elevation of this farm is 1,140 feet above the sea, and in our climate this means a low degree of temperature. The winter was a very severe one, the temperature often ranging twenty-five degrees below zero.

The heating of these houses that winter (and since) was done with the old-fashioned Mammoth wood stove, which we used to see in the old New England schoolhouses, and which are found to-day in the lumber camps and factories. The fuel used was the wood cut upon the place by the boys themselves. They worked out of doors all winter. There was not a case of illness. We have no physician there, and the first winter we paid one doctor's bill of seventy-five cents, and this was for a minor surgical operation.

The next spring these boys began the construction of a second farm group, and another farm was put in repair. Much of the work was done by the boys. They did all the painting, all the tearing out of old material, all the excavating, all the rough stonework. When this second farmhouse was ready, we transferred from the parent school another group of fifty boys.

We now have four farm groups, nearly a mile apart, on this great estate. Each group differs a little from the others in the age and capacity of the boys, who are carefully selected with reference to their fitness for the group.

The first of these farmhouses is a wooden house over one hundred years old, with a splendid heavy frame hewed out on this very farm. The man and the woman in charge of this colony live in the main house with the other caretakers. The kitchen, dining-room and the boys' sitting-room are attached to this main house, while the two dormitories and the toilet accommodations for the boys are some two hundred feet in the rear, placed that distance away on account of the danger from fire.

The boys work out of doors all day all the year round. In the winter they are kept busy preparing fuel for the next year, and in the care of the stock. In the summer they are busy with the clearing of the rough land, the care of the stock and the cultivation of the crops.

Boys who had become exceedingly troublesome at the home school—exceedingly restless and unhappy—many older boys who felt injured and aggrieved to see things which they could not en-

joy, and to see other people enjoy privileges which were not possible for them—these boys are now living three miles from the town. They never go to the town. Our estate is their home. The housemother of their colony group represents to them what a mother means to the normal boy. For many of these boys, this is the nearest approach to family life they are capable of knowing.

The boys are kept busy in the day time. At night they come in tired and hungry. They sit around their sitting-rooms until eight or half-past eight and enjoy games and sports. Perhaps someone reads to them, or those who can, read boys' stories and tales of travel and adventure, while others look at pictures.

They are very glad to go to bed. Boys who have worked in the field all day require no night watchman. They go to bed and sleep. An attendant sleeps in an adjoining room, but we have little anxiety about the boys during the night. There are no locks on the doors, and the boys go and come as they please. We have had very few runaways from a class notorious for running away.

Since the formation of the farm colony we have had no case of tuberculosis develop among these two hundred boys, and that among a class notoriously subject to tuberculosis and proverbially short-lived. It is rather remarkable that we have had only one death in eight years among these patients. Of course, they are a class selected because they are able-bodied and in good health.

This farm colony is sixty miles from the parent school. We have four farm groups, each group entirely independent of the others. We have no executive officer at the colony who has anything to do with any other group than his own. The colonies are of the same size, fifty patients in each group. They can be closely compared as to standards of service, the training and the condition of the boys, the amount of supplies they need, etc. This condition encourages a very wholesome competition between the different groups. The superintendent or one of the physicians visits the colony once each week.

In case of emergencies, the colony can communicate with the home school by telephone in a very few minutes. As a matter of fact, emergencies are rare. The trained people in charge of these groups are thoroughly capable of meeting ordinary emergencies. Indeed, we have found that the fact that they are directly responsible for the well-being of these boys has developed an efficiency and an executive ability which is quite remarkable.

I am convinced that these patients were too closely supervised at the home school, and that the people in charge of them were not allowed enough discretion, and were not expected to accomplish results.

Our boys have already cleared over 125 acres of land. Much of their energies have been spent upon the preparation of the buildings, but we have already begun to receive satisfactory returns from the labor of the boys. Last year we shipped twelve carloads of produce from the colony to the home school, in addition to the amounts consumed by the population of 200 at the colony.

These boys live in houses not distinguishable at a short distance from the houses which shelter the inhabitants of the town. They are built of wood and are inflammable, but so are the houses of the townspeople. The buildings are only one-story high and there are plenty of opportunities for escape in case of fire.

The total cost of buildings and furnishings at the colony amounts to a little less than two hundred dollars per capita. Our parent institution, very plainly built, cost $700 per capita. There is no comparison between the comfort and content and the health of the boys at the colony and the best housed of our patients at the school.

We have developed our problem carefully because in a way it was a rather new field, and we were anxious not to make any serious mistakes. We have developed rather slowly. It seems probable that the colony will be the department of our institution to grow quite rapidly in the future.

One factor we did not take into account has been the fact that a number of these boys, some fifteen in all, have developed at the colony an amount of self-control and usefulness and dignity which has induced their friends to take them home, where they are now useful and well-behaved members of the family and community.

About 25 per cent of our patients at the colony are of the brighter class, who had profited by the so-called literary instruction of our schools. A much larger proportion are from the middle and lower grades, boys capable of motor training, of manual and industrial training, but who were utterly unable to read or write, or to acquire any sort of literary education. These boys are some of the most useful members of our community.

I trust you will pardon me for describing at such length our own school, but I think I have covered what is meant by the colony plan in what I have said. Of course, a colony means primarily an

offshoot, and our farm colony is a colony in that sense. Now the further application of that principle which has been going on for the past twenty-five years has been the organization and construction of entire institutions upon the colony plan. That is, instead of the conventional monastic structure housing the patients, the modern institution is likely to be constructed with widely detached departments allowing the specialization of the different classes and the utilization of their varying capacity. The Craig Colony for Epileptics at Sonyea and the Gallipolis Colony for Epileptics are based upon this principle. Many hospitals for the insane all over the country have utilized this same principle as an adjunct to the ordinary construction of the hospital.

In our own state, at the Westboro Hospital, a mile away from the parent building is their beautiful colony for female patients. This is a one-story wooden building, so attractively built that it looks like a summer hotel. There are no bars. There are no locks. These patients live there in the most charming surroundings, in the greatest content and happiness. Many of these patients, too, had never done any work in the hospital, under the unnatural environment, but since their removal to the colony have shown an interest in their surroundings and a desire to become actually useful members of that family. On the other side of the lake is the colony for male patients, where a similar class of quiet, harmless insane are given a very great amount of freedom, and where their trained capacity is utilized in the same way. Both of these colonies contribute by the fruit of their labor to the service of the hospital itself.

There seems to be no reason why there should not be a still wider application of this colony plan to the treatment of the chronic insane. There is a strong analogy from a psychological and pathological standpoint between the condition of the patient with chronic insanity or terminal dementia, and the condition of the feeble-minded boy who is received as a patient in our school for the feeble-minded. And following out this analogy, it would seem that the same sort of cultivation of the patient's special senses and long discontinued motor response would redevelop damaged and disused cortical areas, and stimulate and perhaps develop potential areas not originally developed. This plan of re-education of the chronic insane was proposed by a young physician at Willard some twenty years ago. His untimely death prevented the carrying out of that

plan. He proposed to establish a kindergarten for his demented patients, with physical and manual training; just what had been done in the schools for the feeble-minded.

When I recall what is done with these apparently hopeless patients in the various institutions for the defective, I believe that much is possible with certain classes of the chronic insane. I wish to give just a bit of personal history on this point. I had the good fortune to serve as a physician in the insane hospital at Mendota, Wisconsin. When the Wisconsin County Asylum plan was first inaugurated the authorities of a certain county came to Mendota to transfer their patients to the county asylum. In the absence of the superintendent, I demurred at the removal of the entire list. I protested down to the last that this patient was troublesome or that patient was destructive, and finally I drew the line at a patient who had been there for many years who was very violent and dangerous. He had been secluded in the wing of the hospital for years. He had refused to make friends with any of the officers of the institution. In spite of my protest, the county officer insisted on taking this man.

Some six months afterwards I visited that county asylum, and as I drove up to the farm, I saw, to my amazement, my old friend and patient, driving a pair of horses, and holding a plow, while he contentedly smoked a pipe. He called me by name and said he could not stop to talk, he was too busy! He had made a new record of quiet industry and content.

The colony adjuncts of our insane hospitals, with their facilities for industrial education and re-education, are most hopeful features of our modern institutions. The mere fact that the patient is put back into congenial, familiar surroundings is in itself soothing and curative. I believe that a much wider application of this principle is possible and desirable.

DISCUSSION ON THE COLONY AND THE HOSPITAL.

MRS. AMIGH—Dr. Fernald has very kindly told us what has been done for feeble-minded boys, and I would very much like to know what they do with their feeble-minded girls. I suppose they have some.

DR. FERNALD—I spoke of the boys because we have only boys at the colony. The world over the same sort of training is applied to the education of the feeble-minded girls, but we have no separate colony for girls. We give the industrial training for female patients, in our American institutions, so far as they are applicable, in the way of laundry work, tailoring, dressmaking, and work of that sort, which is best done near or at the parent institution. These girls live in detached buildings under colony conditions. It is probable that the colony plan will be carried out to a greater extent than is now done with the female patients, except that in our institutions the buildings for the females will be located near the parent institution. We have begun this year the cultivation of small fruits and the care of poultry yards. Work is more rapidly found without the colony for girls than for boys along domestic lines.

MRS. AMIGH—Do the numbers increase among the girls as fast as among the boys?

DR. FERNALD—For many years the number of applications for male patients greatly exceeded that for female patients. Curiously enough, for the last seven or eight years, in a number of institutions where I have inquired they have had the same experience that we have had—the number of applications for female patients is larger than that for male patients. The boys in the colony are mostly homeless. They are from 16 to 30 or 35. It would not be possible to discharge them, except to turn them over to the almshouse. If they have friends who are willing to receive them, they could take them, but it was the fact that we were unable to discharge them that led us to adopt this colony plan at first.

MR. POND—Are they, then, practically self-supporting? How near, may I ask, is an organized colony of fifty boys self-supporting?

DR. FERNALD—Well, under modern eight-hour conditions of labor and the high price of labor, I do not think any class of defectives can be made self-supporting. So much of the labor of these patients has been expended in the way of construction that it is not easy for us to tell about that, but to a very large extent these selected patients are self-supporting. Much of their labor has been applied to the repair and construction of farm building. If this work had been performed by the best type of paid labor the cost of the work would probably have exceeded the cost of the support of these patients.

DR. ROGERS, Minnesota—As to the application of the term colony, in studying these subjects we should go as far as possible into the spirit of the movement. This idea of transplanting from the parent group is a sen-

sible one and the purpose is to get just as near to home conditions and to prevent institutionalizing as much as possible. In the colonizing we are discussing this evening, we are trying to prevent the housing and accumulating of this great surplus population, the institutionalizing of it, and the nearer we can get to the family idea the more nearly shall we make these people happy, and the more nearly solve the problem. In the case of Dr. Fernald's boys, there are these happy groups of boys that do not want to run away, and they feel they are doing something. If they were herded up in some institution they would be worthless and would lose all the self-respect they had, and the public at large would be disgusted. But the work they undergo in the parent institution has fitted them for the only life to which they can ever be adapted.

Dr. Copp—In closing the discussion in regard to the colony, we should bear in mind this fact, that although it applies and has been applied to the feeble-minded, it applies equally well to the epileptic and the chronic insane of the able-bodied class.

Dr. Tomlinson—I would like to say for the interest of those Minnesotans who are here, that for the past thirteen years the methods described by Dr. Barrett have been carried out in Minnesota, so far as the facilities provided for us will allow. It is the misfortune of our public institutions for the care of the insane that they have two functions: The medical function and the custodial. The custodial function is the most conspicuous, and legislation is based upon that aspect of the work. In the condition of things described by Dr. Barrett it is beginning at the other end, not by the establishment of new psychopathic hospitals, but by the making of the public institution into a hospital proper, and in that way educating public opinion to the idea that such an institution is a hospital. Out of that will grow the necessity to establish such institutions as he described in connection with the State University. It is the misfortune of philanthropy that it always has to deal with results rather than with causes. Our attention is given so much to the picture of the insane individual as we have him in our minds, that we lose sight of the fact that if we change the conditions with which he was surrounded he would not be as we have pictured him. It is because he is herded in crowded institutions and considered chiefly from the standpoint of clothing, housing and feeding, that he has grown up the individual that you think of with such horror and dread. If, on the contrary, it was recognized as a fact, as it is sentimentally and theoretically, that he is a sick man under treatment, and conditions were provided for his treatment just as they are in the general hospital, in a reasonable number of years the insane man as we know him now would disappear from our mind and no longer exist. Another thing I object to: I do not believe the substitution of a new term assists us. It does not improve the patients to call it a psychopathic hospital instead of a hospital for the insane. They are insane just the same. On the contrary, we should induce the public to get rid of the notion they have of insanity, and to look upon it as on pneumonia, typhoid fever, or any other disease, as something that may happen in any family. Insanity is not a

special disease. Insanity is simply a manifestation of disease in a general organization. It is not a disease by itself, and it is because we have been taught it in that way, and because of the influence of modern German teaching that we are lapsing back into metaphysics in the study of psychiatry. The mind is not an entity. You cannot weigh it or measure it or handle it. The brain through which the mind is manifested does nothing towards its own nutrition and has nothing to do with carrying away its own waste material. It is necessary, so far as possible, to treat the body of a weakened mind so as to better its repair and nutrition and eliminate the waste and restore the normal capacity.

I was very much struck with what Dr. Fernald said in regard to instruction. There is nothing he said which is not equally applicable to the dement, and the reason is because the dement is a person who has lost the power of self-control. He has lost the capacity of co-ordinating his mental capabilities; literally, he is a feeble-minded child, and anything so far as the pedagogical aspect of his treatment is concerned, which brings about individual co-ordinated motor response, which makes those activities subject to control in their manifestations, improves the patient. Control is absolutely essential to the care of a dement and of the chronic insane. If we dealt properly with a recent case of insanity he would not become the disturbed nor the feeble-minded, helpless terminal dement. He becomes helpless simply because he has no use for his faculties and because he is kept without an opportunity for physical and mental activity. He loses capacity from disuse just as the muscles become atrophied from disuse when a bone has been broken and the limb put in a splint. We must educate the public with regard to the insane, to appreciate what these institutions really are, and the more attention that is given to the care of a recent case, and the more facilities that are provided for his care and treatment, the fewer chronic cases there will be, and the sooner there will disappear from the community the unsocial being, the disturbed, noisy and violent patient, who gives so much trouble, and whose appearance and actions fill every individual with horror.

Now I am just as strong an advocate as Dr. Barrett for the establishing of these hospitals which he describes, and the importance of the proper training of medical men with regard to the care of the insane. In fact, I have realized it so fully that within the last two years we have begun in our institution a regular clinic for the benefit of all physicians near enough to reach us, and we are advocating instruction, but that instruction is not with regard to the mental condition of these patients. That instruction is to enable them to recognize the physical condition which underlies the mental disturbance and treat it early enough to prevent the development of insanity. That is, after all, the real function of our institution.

Miss Anne S. Hall, Cincinnati, Ohio—In my home city of Cincinnati the institution for the insane is, at least in one respect, regarded as a model. It is said there is none in the world with which it is comparable, and that is in homelike surroundings. The walk through the corridors is like walking through an art gallery. Several years ago there was intro-

duced in the institution by Superintendent Harmon teachers in the arts, one in handwork, in needlework for the women, and a teacher for carving for the men, and beautiful embroidery and drawn work and pillows and cozy corners that might stand as a model for many a home are scattered through the institution. Pictures were selected by Dr. and Mrs. Harmon in Europe, and the frames encircling these pictures showed what can be done by the insane in handiwork. But there is one thing lacking in that institution, and that is a woman physician to minister to the women patients, and I arose to ask any of these gentlemen representing these institutions if in any one there is a woman who is there as a physician to minister to the women patients. The Woman's Club of Cincinnati has taken this matter up within the last month and intends to be persistent and insistent until their request for a woman's physician is granted.

DR. TOMLINSON—Nearly all the institutions in the United States have one woman assistant, and sometimes two or three graduated women physicians.

PAVILION F, A DEPARTMENT FOR MENTAL DISEASES OF THE ALBANY HOSPITAL.

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On the sixth of December, 1899, seven physicians of Albany, New York, petitioned the board of supervisors of the county to erect a "building for the temporary care of insane patients," directing attention to the fact that "the process of commitment to a hospital for the insane is complicated and often requires several days, during which time the patient may be protected by his friends as best they can, or, in event of active manifestations of insanity, endangering himself or others, be placed in the jail." The petition was favorably considered and a law was enacted appropriating eighteen thousand dollars "for the construction and furnishing of a reception pavilion in connection with the Albany Hospital, for the detention and care of persons afflicted with nervous and mental disorders." The Albany Hospital is a private corporation, under the administration of a board of governors, elected annually by subscribers, built on land granted by the city, and providing wards for the care of both private and public patients. The erection of the so-called "Reception Pavilion" was contingent upon "a contract between the Albany Hospital and the County of Albany, that the said hospital will maintain and manage the said pavilion, and will

agree to receive and accept for detention or treatment in said pavilion, all public patients from this county or any of the cities or towns thereof, upon the same terms as public patients are received and cared for from the various towns of this county, at such hospital."

The conditions leading to this action were particularly painful. The insane of the State of New York are maintained by a State law. The State is divided into hospital districts, Albany being in the district of the Hudson River State Hospital at Poughkeepsie, distant seventy-five miles. There was no opportunity for the treatment of a case of insanity other than by a commitment to this hospital. The commitment is a complicated legal process, consisting of a petition by any person with whom the patient may reside, by the nearest available relative or by a proper public official, annexed to the certificate by two qualified physicians, of an examination to have been made jointly within ten days before the granting of an order, and to contain a statement of "the facts and circumstances upon which the judgment of the physicians is based, and show that the condition of the person is such as to require care and treatment in an institution for the care, custody and treatment of the insane." The petition and certificate, properly verified, constitute the application, notice of which "shall be served personally, at least one day before making such application, upon the person alleged to be insane." If the judge to whom such application is made is "satisfied that the alleged insane person is insane," he may "issue an order for the commitment of such person," or he may, "in his discretion, require other proofs."

A later amendment to this law provides for "emergency cases," who need "immediate care and treatment," or who are "dangerously insane," and may be received in an institution upon the certificate of lunacy and petition for five days pending the securing of the judicial order.

In brief, a patient who is suffering from disease of the mind, the most threatening calamity of life, must be so far advanced in the disease and so disordered in action or in speech as to satisfy a lay tribunal of the necessity or justification of the forcible deprivation of his liberty, must be told that he is "insane," must be "adjudged insane," and "committed" by a court to an institution for the insane, before he can receive the treatment best adapted to the restoration of his health.

In so far as the "Insanity Law" of New York relates to the care, custody or protection of the insane, it is definite and effective; but as an obstacle to the prompt early treatment of mental disease it must be regarded as a medical barbarism. This discrimination against the mental patient places him in a different light than the sufferer from a physical ailment, although the pathological processes are more delicate and intricate and demand the most painstaking consideration. It is impossible to conceive of a patient with pneumonia or a broken leg applying to a court of law for medical or surgical care.

The man who has overtaxed his nervous system suffers first from insomnia. Insomnia is a manifestation of irritability, which is the earliest expression of exhaustion. It indicates that the excessive momentum of the work of the day is carried into the night, and that normal relaxation and recuperation do not follow. The train of thought is beyond voluntary control, and this automatic mental activity soon continues throughout the day. The patient states that his thoughts are "running away with him." He is also conscious of inability to concentrate his attention, which, as a layman, he usually describes as loss of memory. This mental unrest early becomes a source of anxiety, and the attempt is unfortunately made to obtain relief by sedatives; the overshadowing symptom of irritability is treated and the underlying pathological state of exhaustion ignored. The result is disaster. The use of debilitating drugs upon an already depleted organism intensifies the condition, interferes with function, obstructs the secretions, prevents metabolism, and the products of decomposition accumulate as poisons, to add their damaging effects. Strange thoughts and fancies fill the mind of the patient, of the extraordinary character of which he is partially or at times fully conscious, and of which he is willing to accept an explanation. This is the point of progress of the ailment which has been described as the "borderland of insanity." It is the true psychological moment, at which a misstep may precipitate disaster, and proper treatment may avert a long and dangerous illness. The family look upon the patient with apprehension and with awe. The actions, manner and characteristics of one dearly beloved are changing and his companions are not educated to the interpretation or management of the altered personality. Evasion, indirection, deception, falsehood, contradiction, chiding and even violence, bewilder the patient, intensify his irritability and confirm

his doubts, when the simple truth, a frank revelation to him of the morbid origin of his fancies—the only source of mental relief—is almost never spoken. His friends appreciate the mental disorder, its threatening aspect and possibilities, but stand in awe of the formidable judicial declaration of insanity. The opprobrium attached to a confession of mental obliquity weighs more heavily than the desire for relief. Delay and mismanagement follow, until the patient, delirious and desperate, has committed some offense against the law, or has become flagrantly incompetent, when, often too late, he is placed in the hands of physicians who understand his condition and are trained in the use of therapeutic measures for relief.

The shock of it all is frightful. In this age of ideals and stress, many who strive for the highest rewards of cultivation of the nervous system, the attainment of a lofty ambition, suffer moments of fatigue and depression, the penalty of overwork. The impending calamity, in which individuality is felt to be slipping away and merging into incompetency and lunacy, is apprehended and feared. Relief is sought, too often in vain, for men and measures are not provided. Here lies the opportunity of individual prophylaxis, and here, between the home and the asylum, the general hospital may intervene.

Fortunately for the proposed project conditions at the Albany Hospital were peculiarly favorable. A new institution had been constructed, consisting of a series of buildings on either side of a central corridor or axis, providing wards for public and private patients, an operating theatre, nurses' house and administration. The pavilion for mental cases was placed in the rear of the nurses' house, distant from the general wards, and from the publicity of the central corridor.

The floor plan was designed with an eye to the needs of all classes of patients. It was anticipated that both turbulent and quiet cases would be received, and that the comfort of each must be promoted. There were two departments, separated by a heavy partition wall and double doors, in the rear of which were two guarded rooms, where noise might be confined. At the end of the first year it was found that this provision was inadequate and the rear section was enlarged to provide ten rooms, with a day room or sitting room on each floor. Six of these rooms were approached by a communicating cross hall, so that the disturbed patients are removed from the general ward. This plan serves the double pur-

pose of adequate provision for the excited patient and protection for others. Shouting, rattling of doors and windows, striking the walls are manifestations of mental disorder just as elevation of temperature is a symptom of fever, and mental disorder, as fever, is often self-limiting. The patient should be placed under proper conditions and carried intelligently through the attack. Excretion of waste products is to be promoted, the state of nutrition improved, and normal functional activity of the organism restored. These are medical problems of transcendent importance and direct the attention and the therapeutic efforts to the patient himself. Methods sought to be justified under the vicious plea of expediency are anticipated, and forcible suppression of symptoms is avoided unless for his good. Harmful sedatives and other coercive measures for preventing disturbance are too often used to the detriment of the patient and for the benefit of others.

The first consideration is consequently architectural, and Pavilion F has been so constructed as to afford means of isolation and, at the same time, proper personal attendance. Much of its best work has been accomplished in the treatment of acute cases of a very active character; and such cases, when properly managed, afford the quickest and most satisfactory recoveries, and have a legitimate claim upon the general hospital.

The administration of Pavilion F is based upon that of the other departments except that the attending physician has continuous service, and is held to strict accountability to the governors of the hospital. He visits at least once a day, and exercises supervision and medical power. For a few months after its opening the pavilion received patients in the care of other physicians, but this was soon found to threaten disturbance, discord and even danger, from both medical and legal points of view, and concentration of responsibility was inevitable. The physicians of the community have generally co-operated with the hospital, and have assisted in the management of critical cases, realizing the greater difficulties experienced before the creation of this department, and the delicate questions involved.

The attending physician is assisted by two internes on the medical service, whose duties are the taking of histories and examination of the patients under his direction. The greatest instrument for good, however, is the nursing care.

Some ninety nurses are under training in the hospital. The

course is of three years and includes every department. In Pavilion F at least ten weeks are required, on day and night duty on the men's and women's wards. The pupil nurses are directed and supervised by the head nurse, who is a woman of experience in mental work, co-operates with the training school, is a part of it, and is an assistant to the superintendent of nurses.

The standard of nursing is that established by the hospital, and this in turn reflects the requirements of the most exacting patronage of the community. The service given by the nurses in the mental department has proved the most substantial factor in establishing its high ideals. Nor is the pavilion under an excess of obligation, as educational elements are supplied which count largely in the equipment of the nurse for the work in general medicine and surgery.

Clinical instruction is also given to the students of the Albany Medical College, who attend a weekly bedside course during the college year.

At the end of five years this experiment in the therapeutics of mental medicine is thought worthy of a report to the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Facts and experience have accumulated to justify a statement as to whether an actual advance has been made in the most difficult and least understood department of practice; or whether, as is unfortunately too often the case in medicine, as well as in dress, a fashion has been introduced to indulge a passing fancy.

From February 18, 1902, the day of the first admission, to February 28, 1907, one thousand and thirty-one patients have entered this building. Of these five hundred and ninety-six have returned to their homes recovered or improved, three hundred and sixteen have remained stationary, and eighty-six have died. Two hundred and forty-five have been transferred to institutions for the insane; of these one hundred and twenty-six were sent to Pavilion F for detention during the legal proceedings, and one hundred and eighteen were committed after a period of observation. It thus appears that nine hundred and five patients have been under treatment without legal process, one hundred and eighteen of whom it became necessary to commit later to institutions for the insane.

If this special provision for the treatment of the mentally deranged had not been made in the Albany Hospital, then these nine hundred and five patients would either have had to be improperly

treated at home, or would have been committed after a probably harmful development of the disease. It is impossible to judge how many have been saved from an unnecessary commitment.

A glance at the table shows that every form of mental alienation or defect has been represented. With reference to personal mental rsponsibility patients may be divided into three groups; first, those who know what they are doing, and enter the hospital for treatment; second, those who do not know what they are doing, and are brought to the hospital; third, those who know what they are doing, and decline to enter or remain in an institution.

In the first group are cases of neurasthenia, hysteria, hypochondria, melancholia, mania, light grades of dementia, some forms of drug addiction and alcoholism, and physical diseases with incidental mental symptoms. These patients are capable of making their wants known, of protecting themselves against injustice or neglect, and of enforcing any obligation of care or treatment assumed by the physician or hospital.

The second group includes, primarily, cases of delirium or stupor, and secondly, cases of feeble-mindedness, either native, as in idiocy or imbecility, or acquired, as in advanced dementia, the late stages of paresis, and old age. Delirium and stupor are mental states due to acute and profound changes in physical conditions, the pathological substratum of which is exhaustion and toxæmia. The cases are critical and often fatal. They can rarely be treated at home, should not be committed to an institution for the insane, and require prompt and energetic measures, such as a general hospital may give. The question of improper motive or unauthorized interference is no more pertinent than when a patient unconscious from the uræmia of Bright's disease is plunged unceremoniously into a bath. The mental enfeeblement of advanced dementia, paresis and old age, gives opportunity to designing persons, and care should be exercised by the custodians of these helpless patients to protect them from injustice. When property interests are involved it is wise that legal cognizance be taken of their incompetency.

In the third group are cases of early paresis and of delusional insanity. The experience of Pavilion F has shown that the confines of a small building are too limited for the characteristic restlessness and magniloquence of paresis. Delusional insanity is always the most troublesome condition. Any form of opposition, detention or restriction is resented, and indeed, the determination of the delusion may be difficult, particularly when marital infelicity

is the basis of the disturbance. Husbands with quarrelsome wives, wives with intemperate husbands, children with degenerate parents, parents with disobedient children occasionally look to the hospital for relief. Inasmuch as the management of such patients involves the question of custody rather than treatment, and restrictive measures are appropriately decided by the courts, the hospital refrains from engaging in these disputes.

It should not be forgotten that insanity is disease, and that the determination by a court of the treatment of disease is illogical. A few patients in incipient stages, less than twenty-five per cent, and probably not more than ten per cent, fail to recognize the morbid origin of their abnormal thought and action, and decline the remedy. They become a menace to themselves or others, and are subject to legal measures because they are unsafe, violate law and order, and render themselves liable to restraint. They constitute one class for whom supervision is necessary. Another group of patients are those who do not recover and need the good offices of the court, not however for the safety of their neighbors, but because they are left, after the active disease has subsided, with a mental scar, a defect in intelligence, and are incompetent to carry on independently the duties of life, to mingle in society, or to support or protect themselves in the struggle for existence. They are the demented, or mentally enfeebled, comprising the bulk of the State hospital population, a rapidly increasing number who are a helpless burden. It is right that provision for them be under the jurisdiction of the State, in the interest of both the State and its beneficiaries.

There is thus a clearly defined line between patients needing treatment and those subject to custodial care. For the former the intervention of the court is unnecessary except in rare cases, and then when an infraction has occurred or is threatened; for the latter every technical requirement should be observed. It is not intended to urge that the laws should be ignored, or that an individual who resists treatment should be made forcibly to accept it, without opportunity for adjudication; but it is most imperative that patients who are willing or anxious to receive medical treatment should have it, and should have free access to institutions conducted upon such a basis that they may voluntarily and with confidence seek admission. The fault is not with the statute, but with conditions which make harmful its application.

In the enlistment of the general hospital in this service certain requirements are to be observed. The institution should be of high standing and command the respect of the community. The department for mental diseases should be established upon the standard of excellence prevailing throughout. It should be somewhat removed from the other wards that the distressing incidents of acute bodily sickness, particularly the critical events of surgical service, should not create or intensify apprehension and suspicion. The wards differ in design from general hospital wards, and should be more attractively equipped. Tastefully furnished sitting-rooms with books, games and magazines for diversion, may be provided. The custodial feature should be reduced to a minimum, and intelligent visitation should be encouraged that the patient may always have the assurance that an appeal to his friends may be made.

It is of first importance that the attitude of officers and nurses should be one of service upon the patient, and never one of dictation or assumption of superiority or command. When the doors swing easily both ways there need be little anxiety. Finally, in critical cases, there is no substitute for the unremitting personal attendance of skillful and sympathetic nurses.

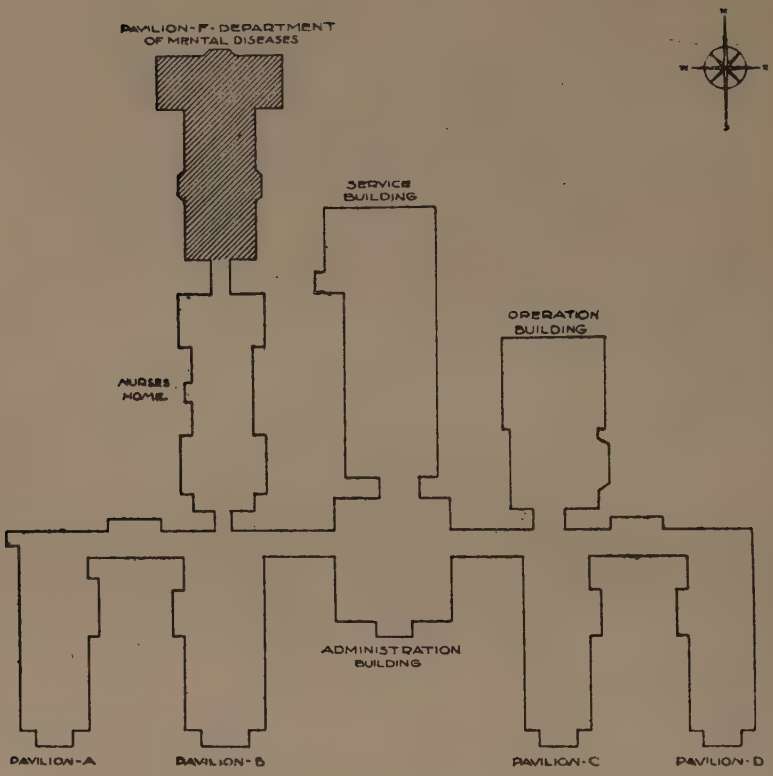
The function of a general hospital is the treatment of acute disease. The question is now presented whether there should be any limitation of this duty; that is, whether certain forms of disease should be denied admission. For large cities with numerous hospitals it may be expedient to specialize, and to designate different acute diseases to different hospitals. In smaller cities, of population varying from fifty thousand to two hundred thousand, the two or three good hospitals represent the purpose of the members of the community to secure for themselves proper treatment when sick or injured. The contribution of each individual, whether through private or public channels, is his measure of protection for himself or for some one near and dear. If the calamity which sends him to this institution is mental in character, he might demand, and he would be justified in demanding, that he be not spurned, when his neighbor with a surgical lesion or an infectious disease, has at his disposal every means known to science for the restoration of his health.

It is not to be expected that the work of a hospital for the insane can be done in a general hospital. Nor can the work of a

general hospital be done in a hospital for the insane. But there are many forms of mental disorder having the character of an acute illness, and there are many forms of acute physical disease with disturbance of mental function, for which the general hospital should provide. Otherwise, it is not a general hospital.

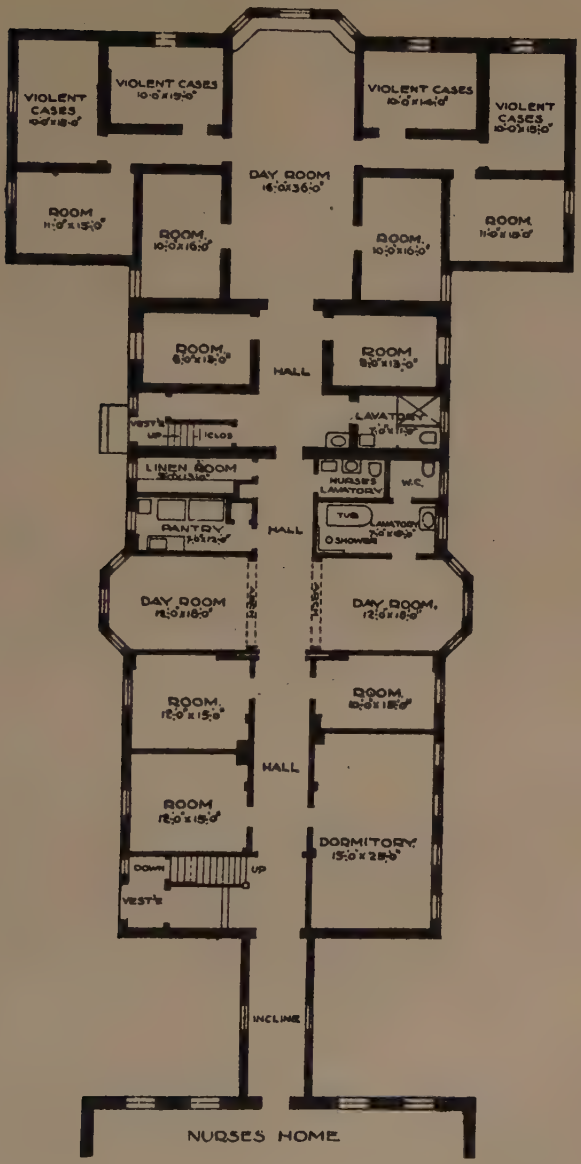
TABLE—SHOWING THE FORMS OF DISEASE AND THE RESULTS OF TREATMENT FROM THE OPENING OF PAVILION F, FEBRUARY 18, 1902, TO FEBRUARY 28, 1907.

FORM OF DISEASE.	Recovered.		Improved.		Unimproved.		Died.		Remaining.		Total.		Total.
	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	
Acute delirium	20	20	7	7	1	5	7	7	1	1	36	40	76
Confusional insanity	5	2	4	6	2	2	3	2	1		15	12	27
Melancholia	17	17	18	49	20	44		3	2	1	57	114	171
Mania	3	6	11	13	12	15	1			1	27	35	62
Primary dementia	1	2	7	2	11	4					19	8	27
Recurrent Insanity			3	10	5	4					8	14	22
Chronic delusional insanity			1	3	16	18				1	17	22	39
General paralysis			1		20		3		2		26		26
Terminal dementia			11	16	39	40	12	8		3	62	67	129
Imbecility and Idiocy			12	7	8	7				2	20	16	36
Acute alcoholic delirium	109	8	15	5	2		13	2			139	15	154
Alcoholism	19	5	60	3	6	2			4		89	10	99
Drug addiction	5	3	5	4		3	1	2			11	12	23
Ptomaine poisoning	1	2									1	2	3
Uræmia							3				3		3
Eclampsia		1	1					1			1	2	3
Epilepsy			8	1	6	1					14	2	16
Neurasthenia	3		17	5	2	7					22	12	34
Hysteria	1	1		8	1						2	9	11
Chorea minor	1	1				1					1	2	3
Exophthalmic goitre				1								1	1
Nervousness		1										1	1
Hypochondriasis			5		1				2		8		8
Pseudo paresis			2								2		2
Organic brain disease			7	2	5	2	2	3			14	7	21
Cerebral concussion			2								2		2
Meningitis							2				2		2
Locomotor ataxia				2		1						3	3
Myelitis								1				1	1
Hydrophobia							1				1		1
Tuberculosis					2		1				3		3
Jaundice								1				1	1
Pneumonia							1	1			1	1	2
Pernicious anæmia				1				1				2	2
Gastro-enteritis							1				1		1
Fracture of scull							2				2		2
Multiple fibromatosis								1				1	1
Malingering					1						1		1
No diagnosis											7	5	12
Totals	185	69	197	145	160	156	53	33	12	9	614	417	1031



BLOCK PLAN OF ALBANY HOSPITAL
ALBANY, N.Y.

A.W. FULLER—ARCHITECTS
W.D. PITCHER—ALBANY, N.Y.



FIRST AND SECOND FLOOR PLANS
PAVILION-F- DEPARTMENT OF MENTAL DISEASES
ALBANY HOSPITAL
ALBANY, N.Y

A.W. FULLER — ARCHITECTS
W.B. PITCHER — ALBANY, N.Y.

VOLUNTARY PATIENTS IN AN INSANE HOSPITAL.

GEORGE S. ADAMS, M. D., SUPERINTENDENT OF THE WESTBORO INSANE HOSPITAL, WESTBORO, MASS.

In 1881 the Massachusetts Legislature enacted a law permitting persons to come voluntarily for commitment in the insane hospitals of the state. The act reads as follows:

"Chapter 87, section 28. The superintendent or keeper of any hospital as aforesaid may receive and detain therein, as a boarder and patient, any person who is desirous of submitting himself to treatment, and makes written application therefor, but whose mental condition is not such as to render it legal to grant a certificate of insanity in his case. No such boarder shall be detained for more than three days after having given notice in writing of his intention or desire to leave such hospital."

The Westboro Insane Hospital was opened in December, 1886, after this law had been in operation nearly six years, and this fact perhaps explains, in some degree, why voluntary applications from suitable persons were favorably received. I have been told that the officials in some of the older state insane hospitals did not consider such cases desirable inmates and declined to receive them, which was well within their rights.

Within the year 1887 there were admitted 344 patients to the Westboro Insane Hospital and of these six were voluntary patients. During the past year there were forty voluntary admissions, ten per cent of the direct court commitments, and in the twenty years there were 370, a little over five per cent of all persons admitted. The law stated very clearly that a voluntary patient must be one "whose mental condition is not such as to render it legal to grant a certificate of insanity in his case" and the officials of the Westboro Hospital adhered to the letter of the law and received as voluntary patients only those who could not be committed as insane. As will be shown later this decreased the number of voluntary admissions very materially. Most of those received were private patients, those whose expenses were paid either by themselves or their friends, and this further limited the application of the law.

A few of the officials of the towns were wise in wishing to secure early treatment, for they sometimes sent to the hospital persons who needed treatment, but were unable to pay for it, and

asked to have the bill for board sent to the town. Two of the admissions in 1887 were chargeable to the city of Boston. Later, some city official—the auditor, I think—raised the point that they had no right to pay for the support of sane persons, and the further reception of such cases ceased. Other towns continued to support voluntary patients up to the time that the State Care Act of 1900 became operative in 1904. In my annual report of 1901 I called attention to the need of provision for the admission of border line patients, without means, in the following words: "Four voluntary patients came, chargeable to as many different towns. They required hospital treatment but could not be committed as insane. The State Care Act of 1900, which became operative in 1904, contains no provision for the admission of voluntary patients not able to come as private patients." The state board of insanity also saw the necessity for this and in 1905 an act was passed which read as follows:

Acts of 1905, Chapter 532:

"Section 1. Chapter eighty-seven of the Revised Laws is hereby amended by striking out section fifty-three and inserting in place thereof the following: Section 53. The superintendent or keeper of any institution, public or private, to which an insane person may be committed, may receive and detain therein as a boarder and patient, any person who is desirous of submitting himself to treatment, and who makes written application therefor, and whose mental condition is such as to render him competent to make such application. Such person shall not be detained for more than three days after having given notice, in writing, of his intention or desire to leave such institution. The charges for the support of such person in a public institution shall be governed by the provisions of the law applicable to the support of an insane person in said institution, provided the approval of the state board of insanity shall be obtained in writing.

"Sec. 2. Said chapter eighty-seven is hereby further amended by striking out section fifty-four and inserting in place thereof the following: Section 54. If a patient is received into any such institution upon his own application or under the provisions of section fifty-two, the superintendent or keeper thereof shall give immediate notice of such reception to the state board of insanity, stating all the particulars of the case, and said board shall cause the case to be investigated and a record to be made of all the facts relative thereto."

As this law is becoming better known to the medical profession, the number of state voluntary cases is increasing. In 1906 out of 39

voluntary cases admitted, 11 were chargeable to the state. This is right, as it gives the border line case, without means, the same opportunity for treatment that is possessed by one with competence, and placing the authority for such admissions with the state board of insanity prevents its abuse by admitting unsuitable persons. From December 1, 1906, to May 1, 1907, six months, there have been admitted 7 private and 4 state voluntary cases.

This law of 1905 is also more liberal in another direction, as it permits any person, whether sane or insane, to apply for admission. This portion reads as follows: "Any person who is desirous of submitting himself to treatment, and who makes written application therefor, and whose mental condition is such as to render him competent to make such application." Under this provision of the law an insane person who desires admittance and to whom the provisions of the law have been carefully explained can be and is received. Two-fifths of the voluntary patients recently admitted are insane.

The character of the sane voluntary cases that come for treatment may be divided into two classes—true border line, and neurasthenic cases, and those who come to be treated for dipsomania and the drug habit—usually morphine. In former years alcoholic cases were accepted as voluntary patients, but treatment was seldom satisfactory and their influence upon other patients was not good; and, as they seldom remained long enough to receive any benefit, I now decline to receive them.

Those coming for treatment for the morphine habit sign this agreement: "I wish to be admitted to the Westboro Hospital as a voluntary patient, for a period of three months, unless sooner discharged by the superintendent, and hereby agree to abide by the rules and regulations of the hospital." The question as to our right to detain them for the specified time has not been decided judicially, and except two patients, who ran away while having the freedom of the grounds, all have remained the three months—some willingly longer; however, they are few in number and their admission is not encouraged.

The true border line cases are those whose admission we encourage. These are cases of simple depression—adolescent insanity in its early stage, and some cases of simple mania, hysteria and cases of neurasthenia for whom treatment may prevent the passing of this state into insanity. Such cases are satisfactory, as they are

willing to accept the advice of their physician as to the time they shall remain for treatment. There is seldom one of this class who will not remain if tactfully managed and only rarely will they insist upon leaving. In such instances, if the patient is suicidal, we urge the friends to have them examined and committed, and in no instance has this advice been rejected. Neither have we had any more trouble with cases who are undoubtedly insane who come as voluntary cases, than with the sane. Occasionally it seems best to advise the friends to either remove them or have commitment made, but as most of these patients know that if they go away they will be committed, they prefer to remain with the feeling that they are voluntary.

Persons who still consider that to have an insane relative is a disgrace, derive comfort from the avoidance of the technical designation of insane by voluntary admission and also by the avoidance of the publicity involved in a court commitment.

Three women, who were at one time committed as insane, and went out recovered, have recently returned of their own volition, upon the re-occurrence of the early symptoms of insanity and are now passing through a period of excitement.

I am, personally, heartily in favor of receiving voluntary patients, as such admissions are conducted under the laws of Massachusetts and the regulations of the State Board of Insanity, as an important measure for preventing the accumulation of incurably insane in hospitals and asylums by securing treatment at a time when treatment may bring about recovery.

At the McLean Hospital, Waverly, Mass., a private hospital, within the past year more than one-half of all the cases admitted came voluntarily. These cases are in a measure selected, as the McLean authorities have the right to refuse to receive patients, which a State Institution cannot do; but it appears to me that at least one-fourth of all the cases now admitted to the hospital might be received without court commitment.

FAMILY CARE OF THE HARMLESS INSANE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

JOHN E. FISH, M. D., FORMERLY MEDICAL DIRECTOR OF FAMILY CARE, STATE BOARD OF INSANITY, BOSTON, MASS.

In the spring of 1901, when I assumed the responsibility of selecting patients from our insane hospitals to provide for their care in private families, I felt somewhat apprehensive as to the practicability of placing insane persons in the community. I contrasted modern hospital methods of caring for the demented and feeble-minded, with the pitiable conditions I had observed among the insane in almshouses in another State. I anticipated reasonable objection to the removal of the most desirable patients, those whose work was of value to the hospital, and the predictions of my friends that there would be difficulty in finding satisfactory "caretakers," each contributed to my uncertainty for the future of the family care system.

It has been my privilege during the six years just passed to select from the several hundred patients examined, four hundred and forty unrecovered cases, and in my supervision of them I have endeavored to ascertain not what ought to result, but what actually did in practice result, from their transfer from institution to private family care.

There are in Massachusetts today 267 patients (13 men, 254 women) living under more natural conditions than any institution can offer, with unquestionable advantages to themselves, and, so far as I am able to determine, without injurious influence upon others.

In the selection of families I have found that people are governed chiefly through their fears and prejudices, and it is a very strange fact to me that greater effort is not made by hospital officials to stimulate the public to a clearer understanding of institution methods and conditions. A person not of the dangerous or destructive class may remain at home for months and receive only the kindest sympathy from his friends and neighbors, but let him be committed to an insane hospital, the token of disgrace is apt to be placed upon him and he too often becomes practically forgotten and ignored. Family care in Massachusetts has done much toward removing the popular prejudice and terror from the idea of insane institutions.

How vividly I remember my keen disappointment when I made my first effort to secure a caretaker in a community unfamiliar with the system. My suggestion excited a discussion of insane poisoning, incendiarism and crime, and the most absurd accusations of abuse and neglect were credited to the district insane hospital. I placed in this neighborhood a quiet, tidy, inoffensive woman of sixty years who had two years previously been committed for a depression, from which she recovered too much deteriorated to be discharged or to develop any new ideas of institution employment to be of value. She was habitually inactive, did not even make her own bed, for there were younger, more efficient patients to assist in ward work. She had no ambition to leave the hospital, was reluctant to go among strangers, and was only admitted to family care with the assurance that she might return should her new home prove unpleasant. She was transferred by one of our department nurses, who saw that she was provided with a suitable outfit of clothing, and gave whatever instructions seemed advisable to the kind-hearted caretaker. In the quiet, simple home, similar to the one the patient had known previous to her commitment, she soon revived much of her knowledge of housework and today makes herself useful in many little ways, such as washing dishes, making beds, darning stockings, etc. She does not wish to return to the hospital; she does not need institution care; and yet she is incapable of providing for herself and should have some supervision by those experienced in the care of demented cases.

Though this case is by no means an exceptional one, I selected her with special care for the undeveloped community, and was not disappointed in my expectations of receiving numerous applications from the neighbors and friends of the caretaker, who were anxious to have in their own homes so congenial and helpful a person.

I have found it advisable to place the most desirable patients first, and instead of causing disappointment and jealousy between neighbors with subsequent and less promising cases, I have observed that caretakers are apt to emphasize the advantages which their charges possess, and good-natured rivalry often results in an effort to see which family can produce conditions most satisfactory to the department.

The greatest number now living in one township is 72, and not

more than 4 patients are living in any one home. At no time during the past five years has there been a scarcity of applicants for patients, and my selection of cases with special reference to each family for the purpose of avoiding incompatibility and the necessity of too frequent transfer has frequently occasioned a delay of several months before a satisfactory home could be accepted.

I have made it a practice to personally visit and inspect every family in which it was proposed to board patients, not merely for the purpose of ascertaining the suitability of accommodations (facts which my visiting nurses were far more competent to determine) or whether some patient should be transferred to that home, but for what particular type of case the family was most competent to provide. Again and again I have known patient and caretaker incapable of existing together in agreement or harmony and observed most pleasing results from the removal of the patient to another home—merely a question of compatibility; and I would lay it down as a principle that as much care should be exercised in the selection of the home for a patient as is employed in the choice of the patient for a home.

I have been much interested to note the motives which prompt people to take these cases, and, contrary to the general belief, it is by no means always for financial gain. One genial old lady always did her own housework, and, when an attack of rheumatism interfered, she still insisted in directing household affairs in all their details, to which the maids she employed refused to submit; and she had so much difficulty in retaining help that she was persuaded by her family physician to take a patient of my selection for development. Under her firm and tactful guidance two women have been trained to do very creditable work and have since been discharged to become self-supporting.

These women were taken from the abundant residium of chronic cases, and were really incapable of providing for themselves when they left the institution. One family provides a home for a patient purely through Christian good will, and would not feel secure in doing so but for the advice and supervision of the department.

By far the most satisfactory caretakers own their homes in farming communities, where living expenses are low. They usually have one or two unoccupied rooms, produce their own milk,

eggs and vegetables, and can accommodate one or two persons without appreciable increase in their living expenses. A woman boarding four patients, at the average rate of two dollars and eighty cents per week receives a yearly income of $584, a very acceptable sum in the average small country home, and plans for its expenditure by the good housewife for furnishings and home improvements are commonly made long before its receipt. Such worthy caretakers who make special effort to give their patients the same home comforts which they provide for themselves, are naturally sensitive to criticism, but invariably take kindly to advice, and look forward with pleasure to the quarterly call from the visiting nurse.

For convenience of record and general information to caretakers the following list of instructions has been found useful, although more detailed advice respecting individual patients is given by the nurse, at the time the patient is placed, and upon subsequent visitation.

INSTRUCTIONS TO CARETAKERS.

Believing that the first consideration in family care should be to safeguard the rights and privileges of the community, removal of patients has been made whenever probability of evil influence has been suspected, and I have been guided by the principle that patients should not be given into the care of neurotic, supersensitive folks, or ones having a tendency in that direction.

With the loyal assistance of hospital physicians in the selection of patients and no lack of desirable homes in which promising cases could be placed, I have found it a most perplexing puzzle to adjust my patients to the right environment, in the first instance. Conditions will change and render transfer between families inevitable, but much trouble and expense can be avoided by locating patients in the right place at the outset, and however important may be one's knowledge of the scientific aspects of psychiatry I predict that the success of family care in the future will imply a knowledge of human nature required in no other branch of insane supervision.

During the past hospital year, with the daily average number of 248 patients in 138 homes, there have been 83 transfers between families, of patients whose condition did not seem to justify their return to an institution, but whose caretakers did not possess

the tact, temperament, congenial companionship and other qualities so indispensable to the success of caring for insane persons in homes.

Some unprincipled people will flatter and take advantage of a patient's weakness. Those who have had experience in institutions are too apt to adopt institution methods of care, and thereby defeat the very purposes of the system. Others intimidate by threats of punishment or return to an asylum, and in the most thrifty homes, which may appear very attractive and desirable, if patients are taken for purely selfish and economical reasons, they are apt to be overworked, restricted to separate apartments and deprived of the opportunity to enjoy home comforts and advantages.

Of the 440 cases placed during the six year period referred to, but 52 or 12 per cent., became unsuitable within six months and were returned to institutions.

One woman desirous of sympathy from a caretaker whom she regarded as indifferent, wet her shoes in a pond and returned to the house to say that she had attempted suicide. The facts were so magnified in the neighborhood that I did not feel justified in giving her a trial in another family.

One imbecile became frightened at a dog and ran a distance of three miles to the hospital where she begged to be allowed to remain.

Another after two years without the drug returned to her intemperate use of morphine. Some cases became troublesome by writing many letters, others persisted in wandering away, and to some removal from the hospital was manifestly detrimental, e. g., the quietly-going dement who became hallucinated by the change to new surroundings.

In some instances troublesome relatives have been the cause of patients' return. And so I could go on through the list of the various causes of failure, a knowledge of which is probably the basis for the criticisms of the opponents of family care, to whom the 88 per cent. of successful ones, are unknown.

The hospital physician in recommending cases for family care, very naturally thinks of the suspicious, discontented, hysteroparanoid case which greets him with a request for discharge every time he enters her ward, before he recalls the quiet, industrious patient who has settled down into the life and routine of the hospital. He is also unfamiliar with the available homes and I have

found it more satisfactory in most instances to review all cases in regular order, and when it is agreed that a patient is worthy consideration for removal, the case is taken up for discussion. I have made it a practice not to receive a working patient who was contented to remain at the hospital, unless it was believed that something could be accomplished in the way of self-support.

In the selection of patients the chief questions experience has taught me to put to myself are: What risks are there in the case, e. g., of suicide, of danger to others, of annoyance to neighbors? What is there in the physical condition which indicates likelihood of expense for medical attendance and special nursing? In short what can be accomplished by the removal of this patient?

An understanding having been reached that a trial should be given, friends are communicated with, the purpose of the system explained, and effort made to convince them of the expediency of the step in the patient's interest. Friends are invited to visit the home in which it is proposed to place the patient, and after transfer is made are allowed to visit at any time within reason. It has often been observed that friends apparently indifferent to the patient in the hospital are aroused to their responsibility by the encouragement which ability to live in a private family excites.

At first I selected my patients from the old residents of the chronic wards, comfortably demented, manageable women, in whom the deterioration process appeared to be arrested. Curiously enough certain mechanical housework of a simple kind can be brought out of many of these cases if they are placed amidst opportunities for employment in which they have been well educated.

I recall what to me has been a very interesting case—an unmarried woman of forty, regarded as having average intelligence, though I think her previous history would indicate constitutional mental weakness, disposition reserved and quiet and habits industrious in the small country farmhouse where she lived with her infirm parents. The cause of her insanity was attributed to overanxiety for the welfare of her parents who died soon after her commitment.

For a period of about six months she was much depressed though never resistive or suicidal. She gradually lost all interest in everything, and when my attention was first called to the case she had been on a ward for demented patients for six years. Her memory seemed gone, nutrition was flabby and circulation sluggish. She

was careless in her dress, though not dirty or degraded in her habits and I received her into family care for experiment. She could not be taught the simplest of new ideas, but she had not lost the automatic properties of the motor centres which permitted re-education of a simple kind. She now feeds the chickens, sweeps the door-steps, prepares vegetables for cooking and does other similar work. There is no improvement from her dementia and I expect none. I mention this case to illustrate the opportunity there is for re-education in its truest sense.

With the increase in the number and variety of available homes, and the work of the department better systematized, it has been possible to do more toward assisting certain worthy cases back into the community for self-support, and results in that direction have been most gratifying. Twenty-five cases have been discharged during the past two years from a daily average number of 232 and are now successfully providing for themselves.

What becomes of the average, much improved or even recovered working woman patient when discharged directly from the hospital and thrown upon her own resources? In these strenuous days of sharp competition is she not looked upon with suspicion by an indifferent and frowning world and forced to seek undesirable employment where failure is inevitable? Furthermore can the highest degree of improvement and revivability be determined by hospital treatment alone?

Another case will illustrate my belief in family care as a preparatory step to ultimate discharge. A climacteric case whose delusions and hallucinations practically disappeared with a six months' hospital residence. She had no interested friends and remained voluntarily at the hospital which she regarded as a home for some four years. During all that period she did no work and took no interest in anything unless perhaps there was a negative enjoyment in the entertainments and parole privileges. She was absolutely devoid of initiative power, but showed little intellectual impairment in the sense of dementia. She was boarded at the rate of $2.80 per week under exceptionally favorable conditions and has made gradual improvement for the past 18 months. At first she was given little responsibilities such as going to the nearby postoffice for the caretaker's mail, and elsewhere in the neighborhood on simple errands, until she did certain useful things by force of habit. With improvement the board rate was gradually re-

duced and last September, one year after admission to family care and five years and six months from the date of commitment she was made self-supporting and is now receiving $3.00 per week as a housekeeper in a small family. The place is one of her own selection and with a woman who would never think of taking a patient directly from an asylum.

This patient has not been discharged because she still lacks confidence in her ability to maintain herself without the advice and supervision of the Board of Insanity, but as soon as she has accumulated a little more money I shall recommend that she be discharged on trial for one year.

Of course this patient might have improved under hospital supervision, but I often question if there is not risk that listlessness and apathy may degenerate into dementia from want of interest in life, and I am now never satisfied that all possible opportunity for improvement has been given certain patients until they have been encouraged in simple mechanical work and the natural tendencies toward social pleasures strengthened.

The indiscriminate boarding in families of any insane persons who may be able to exist without hospital supervision would be manifestly unwise, and all kinds of abuses and evil influences would result. Family care requires never ceasing diligence to avert serious catastrophies as symptoms change, and endless devising to adjust family difficulties.

The system is by no means complete, the problems which surprise us daily can never reach such a complete solution as to give universal satisfaction, yet it is undeniable that each endeavor does appear to advance our progress toward a satisfactory method of caring for a certain class of patients, who are not suitable for discharge upon their own resources, and yet who appear entitled to more natural liberty than an insane hospital provides.

STATISTICS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

Number of patients at the beginning of the year	253
Admitted within the year	97
Whole number of cases within the year	350
Discharged	9
Viz.: Capable of self-support	7
Requiring further care	2

Returned to institutions	41
Viz.: Unsuitable	10
Physically ill	12
Temporarily	19
Died	6
Escaped	2
On visit Sept. 30, 1906	7
Remaining Sept. 30, 1906	285
Daily average number of patients	248
Average age of patients placed	50
Weekly per capita cost of board	$2.68
Total weekly per capita cost (including supervision)	$3.07
Number of families applying for patients	59
Number of families rejected	10
Number of new families given patients during the year	40
Number of families becoming unsuitable	3
Number of townships in which patients reside	59

INSTRUCTIONS TO CARETAKERS.

1. Your patients should be treated as members of your family and made to feel at home so far as possible.

2. Study the dispositions of your patients, but do not discuss or encourage their peculiarities and fancies. Their habits should be closely observed and any wrong tendencies discouraged.

3. Keep careful oversight of your patients. Some responsible person should be always with them.

4. Never threaten your patients or lock them in their rooms. Every form of punishment is strictly prohibited under all circumstances.

5. Patients' failure to eat enough should be reported at once, unless good reason is obvious. Take notice whether they are gaining or losing in weight.

6. More than one patient must never be allowed to sleep in the same bed, nor in the same room, nor should sleeping rooms be above the second floor unless special permission be obtained.

7. Patients should be encouraged to do suitable work, according to their strength, but never beyond it. Light out-door occupation, such as gardening, caring for hens, and so forth, is suitable for women patients.

8. Patients must be comfortably and neatly clothed at your expense, unless a definite agreement to the contrary be made. All clothing must be kept clean and in good repair and subject to the inspection of the visitor. When patients are removed, all clothing belonging to them must be taken with them. It is expected they will leave with as good a supply as when placed.

9. Patients should have a thorough bath at least once each week.

10. The board rate may be reduced from time to time as the usefulness of the patient increases, but not without due notice.

11. If patient is absent for more than one week, you will receive allowance only for rent of room.

12. Payments for board are made four times a year, as soon after the first of December, March, June and September as bills can be approved. Bills are made up to the beginning of the quarter and not to the time when you receive payment.

13. No bills, except in emergencies, should be contracted or expenditures made without authority from office.

14. Be self-reliant in dealing with emergencies; act promptly in accordance with your best judgment as you would for yourself, and then report as soon as possible to the office. Do not allow the continuance of anything which seems wrong to you without calling it to the attention of the visitor of the Board. Do not trouble the office with matters which you can properly settle for yourself, although you must not become careless in reporting essentials. Try to foresee difficulties and seek advice beforehand.

15. If a patient is ill, call a physician as you would for a member of your own family. Report this at once to the office, and note the date of each visit of the physician in the record book. In case of death, telephone or telegraph to office.

16. If a patient escapes, search for her. If she cannot be found, immediately notify the local police and the office.

17. If a patient becomes dangerous or unmanageable, notify office. If the office cannot be reached, send her to the nearest insane hospital at once, unless you are able to care for her safely until the office responds.

18. Patients must not visit friends at a distance without permission from the office. They must not be removed to another house, family or town without approval from the office.

19. The visitors of the Board will expect to see each patient alone, to inspect her room and clothing thoroughly, and to make

such other examination as may be necessary. Please do not be sensitive, nor regard this as any reflection on you or your care of the patient. The visitor is required to do it as a part of her duty in all cases.

20. Record, in ink, any important information, especially dates of visits of physicians, of friends, or of the patient to friends at a distance. Note change of habits, and of mental or physical condition of the patient.

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PAST AND PRESENT CARE OF THE INSANE IN PRIVATE FAMILIES.

F. B. SANBORN OF CONCORD, MASSACHUSETTS.

This is by no means a new subject before this Conference, for twenty-one years ago, July 21, 1886, I presented a short paper on "The Care of the Chronic Insane in Families" to the Conference then in session at the neighboring city of St. Paul. It described briefly the origin and progress of the family care of the insane in Europe, and dwelt more at length on its introduction in Massachusetts by the then Board of Charity, in 1885, and the results of its first year of experiment. At other Conferences it has been discussed, but never so fully as its importance deserves; and I am glad to know that it will this year be more seriously and generally debated.

Care of the insane in private families long since ceased, in Europe, to be an experiment; and it is now fully established in Massachusetts. Its first patron there was that foremost philanthropist of New England, Dr. S. G. Howe, one of the early chairmen of the first State Board of Charities in the country, and one of the founders of this National Conference, although he did not live to attend even its earlier sessions. On his last visit to Europe in 1867, Dr. Howe, who had long favored family care for dependent children, and had studied the Scotch and Belgian systems of family care for the insane, made a final visit to Gheel, near Antwerp,

and in his chairman's report for the Board of Charities, advocated a modification of the Scotch system for Massachusetts. In the general ignorance then prevailing in the United States concerning both the Scotch and Belgian methods, little attention was paid to Dr. Howe's recommendation, which, like most of the suggestions for improvement in the treatment of insanity, was coldly received by the medical superintendents of asylums. However, the seed thus planted did germinate and take root in Massachusetts; and when the late Mrs. Leonard, of Springfield, became a member of the State Board, in 1880, she soon turned her attention to the care of the insane, and gradually became convinced of the feasibility of placing insane women, at least, in well-selected families, rather than to keep them herded, as they then were, in great asylums and almshouses. As inspector of charities for the board—and in fact as Dr. Howe's successor in the chairmanship of the old board —I had myself adopted the view of Dr. Howe; had investigated the question of European success, and felt keenly, from my inquiry into abuses of the insane in the Tewksbury State Almshouse, how much need there was of improvement in our state system. The careful management of the Tewksbury establishment by the State Board in 1883, under ex-Governor Talbot as chairman, and Mrs. Leonard as special inspector at Tewksbury, had given the board so much prestige with the legislature that any bill endorsed by Mrs. Leonard was sure to pass. I therefore drew the act of 1885, authorizing the boarding-out of the insane, and its supplement in 1886; Mrs. Leonard drew up the circular to families and town authorities, and the administration of the laws was for more than three years left in my hands, as deputy lunacy commissioner, with very little restriction by the supervising State Board. I had previously engaged Dr. H. R. Stedman, then a physician in one of our insane hospitals, at an expense of $100, to write a paper favoring the Scotch system; which our Board published, more as an anchor to windward against any unfavorable blasts from the state hospitals, than for effect on the legislature, with which Dr. Stedman's view, however sound, had little weight.

The new policy, cautiously administered under my personal oversight, was unexpectedly successful. More applications from good families came in than we could readily find patients to board out, since that required the recommendation of the asylum superintendents, who were little disposed at first to send out the best pa-

tients for the experiment. Gradually, however, they saw its value, and co-operated loyally. Particularly Dr. Fisher, now of the Presbyterian Hospital in New York, but then at the head of a reformed Tewksbury, was active in recommending his insane patients for family care; so that many very good subjects went out from his establishment, and among them the three patients of Miss Alice Cooke, whose case has several times been brought before the public.

They were just average examples of the practicabilities of the family care system when seen at work in a good household; and it is by such instances, rather than by arguments or theories, that measures of a practical sort are to be tested. Here were three patients of the ordinary chronic asylum type, reckoned incurable, and in fact doing little in the asylum for their own support, but rather making trouble by their noise and disorder for the overworked attendants. They were transferred by me almost twenty-one years ago (October, 1886) to a small New England household of three women; two of them still remain there, self-supporting, and to some extent self-directing; while the third, after ten years of self-support, being aged and diseased, was sent back to the asylum to be cared for in hospital till death. Had they remained in the asylum, they would have been a burden on the public for as many years as they lived; but probably the routine and the confusion of the wards would have shortened their lives by ten years In Sandwich, on the contrary, they have enjoyed comfort and have added to the comfort of those with whom they dwelt in peace and security.

These women were of the servant class, and of Irish parentage. An older patient, a widow, of native American lineage, educated and refined, after an asylum life of nearly ten years, in which her fortune was consumed, and her support thrown upon the public, was one of the first of the 180 patients placed out by me in three years, 1885-88. Her relatives, who only remembered her in her disturbed state, were sceptical about her living quietly in a family. But when they visited her in her happy rural boarding-place, they were converted to family care, and took her home to their comfortable city house, where she passed the residue of her long life, dying at the age of 79, after fourteen years of home life, away from the hospital, where otherwise she must have lived unhappily a life of routine and solitude.

It may be said that these four cases were somewhat exceptional;

but those who have practical experience of family care for the insane know that such instances are far more numerous than the doubters know or imagine. But other cases, not exceptional, which never become self-supporting, do yet relieve the public of much cost, especially for asylum-building. The average number of 100, boarding out in the 17 years from 1885 to 1902, would have cost the State, for buildings alone, $50,000, which, by the end of the period would have swelled to $100,000. Their board in families has, on the whole, cost less than it would have cost in the asylums; and the interest on building-cost has been saved. If we add to this money-argument the fact that the insane thus provided for, without costly buildings, are happier and far more useful than they can be in the ordinary close asylum, we must think that family care is likely to prevail (up to the limit of safety), if we have the right use of our own reason, in providing for those unfortunates whose reason has left them.

But what is the limit of safety? How many of the fast increasing host of the insane can be sent out into families, or can properly remain there, if not yet committed to any asylum? This is a query not so easily answered. In Scotland there have been times when nearly a fourth of the registered insane were boarded in families; at present somewhat less than one-fifth are so boarded. But it must be remembered that almost all of that uncounted regiment of the insane residing unregistered in the community live in families until some outbreak or some family need consigns first one and then another to the asylum, for the first or the tenth time. Probably at any time in Scotland not less than a quarter part of the actual insane are dwelling in families. The late Dr. Earle, thirty-five years ago, estimated that nearly 10 per cent of his patients in the Northampton hospital could be boarded in families. Somewhere between 10 and 25 per cent, then, can be so treated, if expedient. Whether expedient or not will be determined as the cases present themselves in the asylums, and as the supply of good families to receive patients stands, at the time of consideration. The visitation and inspection of families must be constant.

I will leave all such practical questions to be answered by Dr. Copp, who now supervises the placing out of the Massachusetts insane, long ago under my charge; to Dr. Adams of the Westboro Hospital, who selects and sometimes visits his own patients boarded in families, and to others of the Conference who have per-

sonal knowledge of family care for the insane in this country or abroad. I have myself twice visited Gheel and inspected some of the insane in cottages and village homes there; and twice visited the Scotch insane in different counties of that country. The system is gaining ground all over Europe, and the results of its use commend it everywhere that it is carefully and strictly administered. Neglect and bad judgment will let in abuses under any system of caring for the insane; but the opportunity for abuses, I believe, from long observation, to be greater in the close asylums than in well chosen families and neighborhoods. So far as I know, it has been true everywhere that the boarding of the chronic, and some few of the curable insane, in families, has been of advantage both to the patients and to the government; and it has never been finally abandoned where once introduced. The attempt to give it up in Massachusetts, fifteen years ago, came to nothing; its enemies, who were either ignorant or prejudiced, have died in their ignorance or conquered their prejudices, and the present Board of Insanity find no other difficulty than practical ones such as arise in the disposal of all cases of the insane under state care. Ignorance and timidity, which formerly advised against trying the experiment favored by Dr. Howe and Mrs. Leonard, are seldom wise counselors; and it is safer, as well as more creditable, to have confidence in our ability to overcome obstacles that long since yielded to persevering good sense, in most of the countries of Europe. What has been done by a Scot, a Belgian, a Frenchman, a German and a Russian, can certainly be accomplished, and probably with less difficulty, by an American.

A YEAR'S WORK IN THE AFTER CARE OF THE INSANE.

HOMER FOLKS, SECRETARY OF THE NEW YORK STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION.

The present interest in After Care of persons who have been insane and have recovered is one phase of a new attitude on the part of the community towards all kinds of institutional relief. Institutions of all kinds have, as a rule, received both undue praise and undue censure. In so far as they have been open to criticism it has often been due to the fact that they were not properly re-

lated to the normal life of the community, and particularly that insufficient care has been given to the selection and admission of patients, and to their reinstatement in the community when discharged.

There seems to be a general awakening to the fact that we should look more to the life history of the patient; that residence in an institution is but one incident in the treatment that the community as a whole should give those of its members who need assistance. As a result of this awakening, the parole work of reformatories, which for many years was either altogether wanting or sadly ineffective, is becoming a vital factor in the treatment of those committed to their care. Sanatoria for consumptives are realizing that the good work done by them may be undone quickly if the patient returns to those conditions of employment and life which encouraged the onset of the disease. In the same way we recognize the fact that insanity is not altogether a matter of individual weakness, but is the joint product of the personal equation and the environment, and that, though the patient may have recovered under hospital care, a return to the same environment may mean an almost certain relapse. To conserve the beneficial results of hospital care, to treat the patient with full knowledge of his past and his present and due regard to his future—not as though he were an isolated unit, but recognizing his social relations, duties to his family, occupation and associations—this requires After Care for many of those who have been insane and have recovered.

The After Care of the Insane, in active and successful operation in some European countries for nearly eighty years, had reached in this country, until last year, only the stage of exposition. Valuable papers on the subject had been presented to the Medico-Psychological Association by Dr. Peter M. Wise, in 1893; to the National Conference of Charities and Correction by Dr. Richard Dewey, in 1894 and 1905; and an especially full statement to the American Neurological Association by Dr. Henry R. Stedman, of Brookline, Mass., in 1897. Reference should be made, in connection with these papers, to the comprehensive review of this subject at the recent meeting of the American Medico-Psychological Association at Washington, in May, 1907, by Dr. William Mabon, superintendent of the Manhattan State Hospital, New York City.

Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, who, as chairman of the committee on the insane, of the State Charities Aid Association, was largely re-

sponsible for the establishment, in 1890, of the system of State Care and State maintenance for all the insane of the State of New York, had long been interested in the subject of After Care and had made inquiries as to the operations of the English After Care Society, when visiting that country in 1891-1892. Subsequently it was made a part of the duties of the standing committee on the insane, of the State Charities Aid Association "to inaugurate and maintain for convalescents leaving hospitals, who may be friendless, a system of 'after care,' whereby they may be strengthened in health, protected and cared for, until they are able to support themselves." Upon her return to England in the summer of 1905, Miss Schuyler again visited the office of the English Society and gave a brief account of this at a conference of the New York State Hospital Superintendents and Managers, with the State Commission in Lunacy, in New York, November 18, 1905.

Meanwhile, in order to secure more definite information as to the needs of patients discharged from our State Hospitals, a special inquiry was made by the State Charities Aid Association of the conditions and circumstances of patients recently discharged from the Manhattan State Hospital as recovered. The services of two students in the School of Philanthropy, both trained nurses, one a former superintendent of a general hospital, and the other a graduate of the Massachusetts General Hospital and the McLean Hospital Training School, were secured.

The number of patients discharged as recovered from the Manhattan State Hospital for the three and one-half months, October 1, 1905, to January 15, 1906, was ninety, of whom forty-eight were men and forty-two women.

Of the forty-two women, ten could not be found. Of the thirty-two women concerning whom information could be secured, eighteen were found at the addresses given and fourteen at other addresses; twenty-five had continued to improve since their discharge, one had neither improved nor deteriorated, one was dying of heart disease under medical attention, and five were considered to be relapsing. Apparently about one-fifth of the number discharged as recovered needed some assistance at the time of their discharge or subsequently, with considerable hope that relapse might thereby have been prevented.

Of the forty-eight men, reports could be secured as to only twenty-seven, the other twenty-one not being found at the addresses

given and no information concerning them being available, although a very brief period, at most less than four months, had elapsed since their discharge. Of the twenty-seven found, thirteen were at the addresses given by the hospital authorities and fourteen were elsewhere; seventeen were employed; nine were unemployed; and as to one the facts were not ascertained. Of the nine known to be unemployed, several had made no effort to secure employment, one had been temporarily laid off, but expected to return to work, and two patients had tried in vain to secure employment. Both of these had relapsed apparently in considerable degree because of disappointment and anxiety. Twenty of the twenty-seven had improved since discharge and seven had deteriorated or relapsed. It appeared that about one-fourth of the men would have been benefited by assistance at the time of their discharge.

Several cases represented circumstances that were pathetic in the extreme. I recall one case in which the patient was listed on the records of the hospital as discharged to his family; a truthful record, and one which might be considered promising. A visit to this family, however, disclosed the fact that the patient, a comparatively new arrival in New York City, from Russia, had broken down under the strain of caring for his family in a strange city, had been admitted to the State Hospital with "an exhaustive psychosis," had recovered, had returned to his family, and had resumed the burden of supporting them. He was employed in his own home in making clothing. The sanitary conditions of the home was poor; three small rooms (one of the three dark) were occupied by the man and wife and three small children. The most he could earn was $5 per week. What wonder that the visitor reported: "He has lost flesh, looks poorly nourished, works very hard, and it seems likely that he will not stand the strain." Another patient, a comparatively young man, was returned to his family and to his employment; but that employment meant working twelve hours a day as a waiter, from 2 o'clock in the afternoon until 2 o'clock in the morning; the very conditions of employment which, in the opinion of his family, had caused his mental breakdown.

The careful investigation made by these two trained nurses, the results of which were laid before the superintendents, managers and the Commission in Lunacy, at the meeting of January 30, 1906, proved an important factor in the Conference, showing, as al-

ready stated, that at least one-fifth of the women and one-fourth of the men might have been materially benefited had they received assistance at the time of their recent discharge from the Manhattan State Hospital. The Conference placed on record its opinion that it was desirable that there should be established a system for providing temporary assistance, and friendly aid and counsel for needy persons discharged, recovered, from state hospitals for the insane; and also, by resolution, requested the State Charities Aid Association to organize such a system and pledged cooperation in the movement.

The plan of organization in New York is as follows: The State Charities Aid Association has a standing committee on the insane, with a sub-committee on After Care. It is the duty of this subcommittee to appoint After Care committees, one for each of the thirteen State Hospitals, consisting of visitors of the State Charities Aid Association (who are residents of the hospital district), and two or more managers of the hospital, selected by their own board, and the superintendent of the hospital. The hospital district committees receive the names of their respective hospitals, viz: "Manhattan After Care Committee," "Willard After Care Committee," etc.

A salaried agent, Miss E. H. Horton, trained in social work, with headquarters at the office of the association in New York City, gives all her time to assisting the different hospital district committees in the details of their work, more especially in connection with patients discharged from State hospitals in or near New York City. After Care committees have been appointed: for the Manhattan State Hospital, in February, 1906; for the Willard State Hospital, in April; for the Hudson River State Hospital, in May; for the Binghamton State Hospital, in November, 1906, and for the Central Islip State Hospital, in January, 1907. The first annual report of the After Care committee, covering the work to November 1, 1906, has recently been published, and may be had upon application at the office of the Association, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York City. This report also contains the By-Laws of After Care committees, various formulas in use, etc.

As the Manhattan After Care committee was the first organized, and has developed its work to a greater degree than any other committee, a brief statement of its plan of operation may be useful in conveying a further idea of just what the work means, and how it is actually carried on.

After Care work should begin, if the expression is permissible, some time before the patient is discharged. A talk with the patient affords an opportunity for a judgment as to the occupation for which the patient is fitted, and also brings to light many facts in regard to the home conditions. The arrangement has therefore been made that the Manhattan State Hospital is to notify the agent of the After Care committee of patients who are likely to be discharged, preferably a week or more before the patient is expected to leave the hospital. The hospital sends at that time a summary of such facts in connection with the patient's history as seem likely to be of assistance. This information includes the name, age, nativity, occupation and civil condition, date of admission, previous admissions, form of insanity, previous history, circumstances of the patient so far as known, names and addresses of relatives and friends, and character and condition of the home, so far as known. The agent visits the hospital every week, and on such visits talks with the patients of whose expected discharge she has been notified, ascertains their preference in regard to occupation and after conferring with the physician in charge forms an opinion as to their suitability for such occupation.

If there is any doubt as to the wisdom of permitting the patient to return to his former surroundings, the agent visits the home and reports to the medical staff of the hospital such facts as would be likely to have a bearing on the propriety of discharging the patient to this home, or the desirability of trying to provide for him in some other home. Occasionally a family of good character is found to be occupying an apartment which does not permit of proper home surroundings for patients about to be discharged, and is assisted by the After Care committee to move into more favorable environment. It sometimes happens that the discharge of a patient cannot be postponed until after the agent has been notified and has had an opportunity to visit the patient and his prospective home. In such cases if the patient is discharged, the committee is immediately notified and the patient is visited at his home as soon as possible. The hospital also notifies the committee if it learns of former patients who have been paroled or discharged, who appear to be in danger of relapsing, or who need advice or assistance, and a member of the committee or the agent visits such patients at once, and endeavors to provide such aid and secure such changes in the

patient's occupation, or surroundings, as will tend to prevent a relapse. In addition to the above, the superintendent of the Manhattan State Hospital has prepared and printed a circular addressed "To the friends of patients," which is handed or mailed to friends of patients who are leaving the hospital, discharged or on parole. This circular contains various suggestions in regard to the patient's manner of living, the formation of right habits of recreation, employment, etc Successful after care work must always depend, in large measure, upon the co-operation of the hospital authorities, and to this the State Charities Aid Association is greatly indebted for what it has thus far been able to accomplish.

A survey of the actual work of the year ending March 31, 1907, shows that the total number of patients from several state hospitals, for whom visits were made by the agents of the After Care committee was 258, of whom 231 were discharged during the year in question, and twenty-seven had either been discharged before the beginning of the year or still remained in the hospital at the close of the year. Of this total number about 225 were from the Manhattan State Hospital.

Of these 258 patients, it was found to be unnecessary in 192 cases to do more than make one visit to the patient's home, and they were referred to the committee for visitation because the hospital authorities were not informed sufficiently as to the character of the home surroundings. Of these 121 cases, forty-three were men, most of whom returned to steady occupation, and seventy-eight were women, in most cases married women who returned to their husbands. Of the other patients requiring but one visit, fourteen had been provided with employment by their friends or relatives, twenty were not found at the addresses given, and their whereabouts could not be ascertained; fourteen were found to have left the city; thirteen relapsed and returned to the hospital, and ten were not yet discharged from the hospital, though visits to their homes were made by the agent.

Even in these cases in which but one visit was made, the moral effect of this visit would seem to have a certain value, in addition to the information secured for the hospital authorities. It is an encouragement to the patients and to their friends and relatives to feel that some one is interested in the patient's welfare, and that they are at liberty to call, in case of need, upon a responsible agency, for counsel and advice.

The other sixty-six patients required more than one, some of them required many, visits. Thirty-three required no material assistance or employment, but needed counsel and help in other ways, such as, for instance, getting a child into a day nursery, finding a suitable boarding place, advice as to the whereabouts of a suitable dispensary, etc. The variety of duties that have to be undertaken in connection with these visits can hardly be even outlined. The number of visits that have been made in behalf of, or in connection with, ten different patients, is as follows: For two patients, each seven visits; for one, eight visits; for two, twelve visits each; for one, fifteen; one, seventeen; one, eighteen; one, twenty-two, and one, as many as forty-three visits.

There were thirty-three patients, twenty-nine women and four men, for whom aid or employment was secured. The twenty-nine women were aided as follows: Situation secured at service, sixteen; situations secured in a desirable factory, two; sent to the country for rest, seven; assisted by Legal Aid Society, one; referred to Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, one; money provided for purchase of sewing machine, one; patient's clothing removed from insecure storage, one; total, twenty-nine. Clothing was also provided for nine of the men. Four of these men were aided in finding employment, three of them through the Special Employment Bureau of the Charity Organization Society, and one by the After Care agent.

Of the eighteen women for whom employment was obtained, positions were secured by the After Care agent directly in twelve cases, and through co-operating agencies in six cases.

Of the seven women sent to the country for rest, four were sent through the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, one through a settlement, and two at the expense of the After Care committee. Temporary board and lodging have been provided for several patients awaiting employment. The total number of visits made in behalf of the 258 patients was 821, not including the weekly visits to the hospital. Visits were made to the patients themselves after their return, to their friends and relatives before their return, to former employers, to possible future employers, to previous residences, to charitable societies, to intelligence offices, etc. In one instance twenty-three visits were made in behalf of a patient to try and find her husband, son and brother, to get references from her former employers, to ascertain what had become of

her household goods while she was at the hospital, and finally to clothe her and place her in a situation.

A very gratifying feature of the work is the warm welcome received almost everywhere. The patients themselves and their relatives and friends are much gratified by the fact that some one representing the hospital calls to see the patient, and is concerned about the patient's well-being, and the agent is nearly always asked to call again. In several cases, former patients who have shown signs of relapse, have either called at the hospital for advice and counsel, or their friends have done so. These persons have been reported by the hospital to the agent of the After Care committee, and in several instances the former patients have been sent to the country for rest and recreation, or otherwise relieved of strain, and with gratifying results.

Charitable societies have been willing most generously to cooperate, without exception, upon request, it being one of our cardinal principles that the After Care committee should undertake nothing itself directly which any other responsible agency stands ready to do. Among the societies and agencies to which we are indebted for assistance in our work are the following:

The Charity Organization Society, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the Emergency Shelter of the Children's Aid Society, the United Hebrew Charities, the Young Men's Christian Association, the New York Trade School for Boys, Manhattan Trade School for Girls, the Special Employment Bureau for the Handicapped, Alliance Employment Bureau, Sunnyside Day Nursery, Union Settlement, Nurses' Settlement, Rhinelander School, Legal Aid Society and the West End Employment Bureau.

Very little difficulty is encountered in finding employment for women; much greater difficulty in finding employment for men. Some employers seem to be kindly disposed toward the work for the recovered insane, but many hesitate to give employment to such persons. Some refuse to employ a discharged patient under any circumstances. A most important part of the agent's work is that of educating employers in giving a chance to a recovered patient to earn a livelihood, and incidentally of dispelling some of the groundless fears that all persons who have been in a State hospital for the insane are dangerous characters. At present, oddly enough, it is easier to get employment for patients whose insanity has been due to alcoholism than for others. Apparently this is

due to the fact that people think they understand alcoholism, and therefore are less afraid of such cases. In reality, these cases are more likely than almost any others to suffer from a relapse.

The cost of the work thus far has amounted to but little more than $100 per month. This will doubtless increase with the formation of additional After Care committees and as the number of patients under care increases. All administrative expenses, i. e., salaries, office and traveling expenses, printing, etc., are met by voluntary contributions to the State Charities Aid Association for this purpose and patients are also assisted directly when the assistance cannot be obtained elsewhere. In a few instances expenditures for clothing and temporary board of patients have been advanced by the association and repaid by the State Hospitals, under the provision of the New York Insanity Law, which provides that patients leaving a State Hospital shall be suitably clothed and that the hospital authorities shall, if it cannot otherwise be obtained, provide not exceeding $25 to defray the necessary expenses of a patient until he can reach his relatives or friends or find employment.

The particular plan of organization which prevails in New York may not be immediately practicable for other States, in all its details, because, so far as I know, with the exception of New Jersey, there is no other State which has a voluntary organization like that of the State Charities Aid Association, extending over the entire State. In Massachusetts there is a State Civic League, with somewhat similar objects; and movements are on foot in at least two other States for the organization of like bodies. Work for After Care of the Insane need not, however, await the development of such organizations. There is no reason why it should not be undertaken directly by the State itself, or by any charitable or civic organizations within the State which may be in a favorable position to undertake such work.

INSTANCES OF AFTER CARE OF THE INSANE.

PRESENTED BY MISS HORTON.

AGENT OF THE STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

(A. B.) A middle-aged woman, who had been in the hospital for more than two years recovering from an alcoholic psychosis, was well and strong and anxious to get back to her husband and son. They had stopped coming to see her and agent had tried in vain to find them. In talking with the woman and getting directions from her as to how to get to the man's place of work in New Jersey, it occurred to her that *if* her husband was in New York City he would go to a certain little delicatessen shop to buy provisions. Agent went there and learned all about him and the son. The man had been ill and had no home for his wife, so a place was found for her at service, and after working for several months and saving up, she, with her husband and son, started a little home of three rooms, where they are very happy. The woman did drink a little before she left her place, but agent has seen her since she has gone housekeeping and she seems to be all right. The husband and son are both working steadily.

(C. D.) Another case where the committee was able to be of great assistance was that of a woman with three children. She had broken down from overwork and worry. She had been obliged to put her three children into a home and go out to service, and then, whenever she managed to earn a little, her drunken husband would appear and get it away from her. After she broke down she was two and a half years in the hospital and finally was discharged as recovered. The agent got her a situation where she gave satisfaction. Some false teeth which she greatly needed were provided for her and she was kept under supervision all winter. In the spring she took her three children (a boy of 10 and two girls of 12 and 7), out of the home and went to housekeeping, going to work by the day to support them. She is working very hard and the committee means to pay her rent and help her a little besides until she is stronger. She had arranged everything before the agent learned of it, and is so happy with her children that it seems best to let her try her plan.

(E. F.) A young girl who had had practically the burden of the support of her family upon her shoulders, broke down completely. Before she left the hospital, agent visited her mother and

had a plain talk with her and warned her against the girl's working so hard, as it did not seem necessary. The girl was sent by her parents to the country for the summer and upon her return home, strong and well, did not go back to work but helped her mother with the housework. Agent has seen her occasionally and the family have lately moved to the country on the girl's account. She writes to agent and appears grateful for her care at the hospital.

(S. L.) A widow, under middle age, was discharged from the hospital recovered, but was very weak. It was feared that she was not strong enough to work, and she was sent to a farm in the country, where she remained a number of weeks and gained steadily. After some months in the city, still not being strong enough to take a permanent position, she went for two months to a home in the country, through the courtesy of the Henry Street Settlement. She improved wonderfully while there, and upon her return to the city found a very good situation for herself in a gentleman's family. On the anniversary of her discharge from the hospital she called to see agent, looking bright and well, and bringing a bouquet of flowers as a memento of the happy occasion.

DISCUSSION ON FAMILY CARE AND AFTER CARE OF THE INSANE.

Dr. Copp—Some years ago my attention was called to a recovered patient who had no friends or means and was about to leave the hospital alone, although she would be given a little money. It occurred to me that some of the employment agencies under charitable auspices might be willing to find employment for her. One of them was asked, and did so in this instance. Soon after another patient under similar circumstances came to notice. The same request was made of the same employment agency, but this time was refused on the ground that it was impossible to find places for such persons if it were made known that they had been inmates of an insane hospital. It is a common experience of patients leaving our hospitals to find that nobody wants to employ them when it is known that they have been insane. I am anxious that no one should carry away the idea that the system of family care converts the community into an asylum for the insane, and I wish to emphasize the fact that our patients are suitable to live in any community, under supervision, with proper safeguards. It is natural to ask what is accomplished by this work. In twenty years more than one of every five patients has passed from public support. Less than one of every four has relapsed. The average period of relief from public support has been eleven years. You will note that the after-care work carried on in New York relates to the insane who are recovered. There is no legal authority or control over them. All is done out of interest in their welfare. There is a closely related work which may be done

for certain patients who are still under commitment, are not recovered, and are not able entirely to care for themselves in the community, but yet do not need hospital care. If they had friends or property they would leave the hospital. For more than twenty years Massachusetts has made systematic effort to assist such to live in private families under supervision of a state board. A physician experienced in the care of the insane is now in charge of this work and is assisted by two women visitors who are trained nurses. The physician visits the insane hospitals, and, in conjunction with the attending physician, sees the patients and determines who may properly live in such families. If she has a suitable home the patient goes to it; if not, she is placed in some family selected with reference to her peculiarities and condition. One of our visitors looks after her; she is seen at least once in three months.

Mr. Ball, Indiana—The very valuable paper on the work in Massachusetts spoke of cases that were taken out of the hospital who were not ready to be discharged, and would have been kept in the hospitals unless for this provision for their care. There is another class of cases, those who are discharged because they do not need the hospital care any more. Is anything done to look after those cases? Of course some of them absolutely cured go back to their family, and it is not necessary to look after them, but my experience shows that they do need some looking after to prevent a recurrence of the disease and to see that they are properly taken care of by their families or other people. Does Massachusetts do anything in that line?

Dr. Copp—Such patients receive the help they need in family care. They are received into certain families where the care-taker interests herself to find work for them, or they are permitted to seek it for themselves. If the patient does well, discharge follows. It is the intention from the start that they shall be discharged and do for themselves.

Mr. A. L. Rosing, St. Paul—The legislature that adjourned in April in this State provided for the appointment by the Board of Control of one man agent and one woman agent for the after-care of the insane. They authorized the Board of Control to appoint these agents, making provision that they should have at least one year's experience in a hospital for the insane before occupying this position, and authorizing us further to draw the regulations under which they would work. We have not as yet appointed them, but will very soon, and I have been much interested in this meeting. The idea in our mind when we recommended the appointment of these agents by the legislature, and that authority be given to us, was based on the fact that the superintendents of the institutions in the training schools for nurses said that one of the hardest things to train a nurse to do was to leave the patient alone. We believe many relapses occur because the family of that patient does not know how to leave the patient alone. Now, we propose, before we discharge a patient from the hospital, to send an experienced man or woman to the home to give them some instruction as to how to receive the patient when he returns home, and when we receive letters from the home purporting to describe the condition of

the patient, we propose to send an agent there to investigate and see if those letters are true, and if the conditions surrounding the patients are such as the letters indicate. This idea, proposed by Dr. Fish, which, I understand, is in vogue in Massachusetts, of having a doctor visit the institution for the purpose of ascertaining what patients may be self-supporting, is a new one to me. We depend entirely upon the report of the superintendents of the institutions. With the agency system we believe that we can send out a great many patients that are now held in institutions, but I would like to have you, Mr. Superintendent, explain the value of the visiting physician to those institutions rather than taking the recommendation of the superintendents.

Dr. Copp—It has been the evolution of practical experience. The work was carried on without such supervsion up to the time of Dr. Fish's appointment. At that time about 100 patients were cared for in families. It had been our custom to ask the superintendents to furnish lists of patients suitable to be placed out. Finally, the supply of patients seemed to have been exhausted in some hospitals and the work seemed to be approaching a standstill. It beame necessary that the hospital physician, who knew all about the patients, and Dr. Fish, who knew all about the families, should come together in the consideration of individual patients. Accordingly the present method was adopted. Both physicians see each patient together and come to an agreement as to her suitability for family life. There are now always patients enough to keep us busy.

We cannot do all the After Care Association does because we are part of an insane hospital regime from which many patients wish to escape, but we can supplement it by giving patients a chance to demonstrate that they can live in the community. At this point after care work begins.

Family care is an organized and persistent force operating to facilitate the return of suitable patients to life outside of institutions. It does what the hospital cannot well do with all its other demands. It familiarizes the public with the milder features of insanity, and teaches the ordinary safeguards which are needed. These patients tell of their life and treatment in the hospital and usually present the favorable side. They undoubtedly increase public confidence in the institutions. We should be very reluctant to cease this work in Massachusetts.

Mr. Rosing—Then, Dr. Fish is the force, or the supervisor, or the agent. He is the state official, as I understand? And the agents work under him? And this supervising force of the agency system originates the work that is suited for them? By recommending the discharge of a certain number of patients? In other words, added to our agency system, you would recommend that a physician be placed at the head of the agency system?

Dr. Copp—I would begin just as you are. Select some sympathetic and kindly-disposed person who will become interested in the families and patients and watch the result. Your experience will show whether you need a specialized officer like Dr. Fish.

MR. JOHNSON—Dr. Copp, isn't it true it was done at first in Massachusetts by the secretary of the Board of Charities, Mr. Sanborn, who visited and inspected the hospitals for the insane?

DR. COPP—He began the work and carried it on for some years.

MR. POND, Ohio—Was the matter of economy considered wholly aside from the benefit to the patients? In the matter of economy, what is the benefit to the State? Does the State, as a rule, save money by this boarding out plan?

DR. COPP—If a patient passes from public support who would otherwise have continued indefinitely as a public charge there cannot be a question as to the saving. In addition to a considerable number of this class we can show that the actual expense of support in families averages less than for a like class in institutions, but we should also consider the benefit which results to the patients, the education of the public in these matters, and the better understanding between the community and the institutions.

MR. JOHNSON—You are also relieving the overcrowded hospitals.

MR. ROSING—How many commitments, Mr. Chairman?

DR. COPP—We have 2,500 to 3,000 commitments, and we have over 2,000 first cases of insanity appearing every year. If we did not do this work they would accumulate faster.

MR. ROSING—Do you have any limit as to the payment to families for the care of the patients who are insane?

DR. COPP—The law allows $3.25 a week; $2.80 is usually paid. Of course there is no money to be made in boarding a patient at this figure. There must be special conditions. The family must be in the country, the house must be large, with spare rooms which otherwise would not be used. There must be a farm or garden to help supply the table. Material for clothing must be bought and made up at home with the help of patients. The work of the patients counts for something in relieving the caretaker. Under these conditions you can see that there may be a moderate profit.

MR. POND—Then you think in Ohio, instead of building our seventh hospital, we ought to adopt this plan, do you?

DR. COPP—You cannot act abruptly. If you need a seventh hospital now you will have to build it, but before you build the eighth hospital you can adopt this system and postpone the date of building.

MR. BOGEN—Wouldn't there be the same danger in this as allowing the feeble-minded to get out at large? How do you prevent them from handing down posterity?

DR. COPP—There is the same danger, but, mind you, some feeble-minded can live in the community. It is a question of selection and dis-

crimination. We not only look out for child-bearing in our supervision, but also in discharging.

MR. BOGEN—You don't board out either men or women who are liable to reproduce?

DR. COPP—We avoid it as far as we can.

H. C. BOGEN—How about the men?

DR. COPP—We have only about a dozen men. We practically do nothing with them. In the first place we have had all we could do in placing women. We place a few men for special reasons, for example: A man who could do cobbling was boarded in a village where there was no cobbler. He began to mend the shoes of the family and the neighbors and soon had a nice little business, which will eventually make him self-supporting. Men are more easily employed than women in all institutions, because there is always plenty of work on the farm and grounds. They are provided for in our farm colonies where their work counts for much. In families men are wanted only for the work which they can do. There is greater danger of overwork. They associate with the hired man, who is not always a good companion. The man of the house does not take so much interest in him as the wife does in the patients of her own sex.

Defectives.

COMMITTEE REPORT.

BY A. C. ROGERS, M. D., SUPERINTENDENT OF THE MINNESOTA SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN, CHAIRMAN.

Recognizing the principles (1) that all children capable of receiving an education sufficient to prepare them for self-support and independent citizenship are entitled to it: (2) that all children incapable of receiving such education or only to a limited degree, should be guaranteed a protected life, to the support of which they should contribute to the extent of their ability: it is the opinion of this committee (a) that the work of the public schools and the state educational institutions for children should be extended and co-ordinated; (b) that a good practical education should be required for every child capable thereby of becoming an independent self-supporting citizen, either in the ordinary public schools, in special departments of the public schools or in state or district special schools; (c) that expert medical officers should be provided to examine all cases of doubtful classification or mental ability, to determine the nature of diseased or defective conditions, see to their removal where possible, and recommend assignments to special classes or institutions; (d) that feeble-minded and idiot children be provided with a community home for life, where the helpless shall be tenderly cared for and the more capable shall be enabled to contribute of their limited ability to the support of the special community amid conditions and environments that shall insure to them a happy and contented life.

THE RELATION OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR DEFECTIVES TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

A. C. ROGERS, M. D., FARIBAULT, MINN.

There is perhaps no principle more thoroughly recognized by the American people than that of the right of every child to receive a common school education. The public schools, being open to all children who can receive benefit from them and being conducted according to similar methods and standards throughout the country, afford the opportunity for becoming a great clearing house for determining approximately the ability in children sent to them for mental and moral development. The constant effort also to reach a uniformity of standards and methods has led to a more careful differentiation of ability and moral purpose in pupils, and the elimination from the regular classes of such individuals as do not readily respond to their methods, either because of physical defect, reluctance to yield to ordinary discipline, or mental dullness. There are thus three of these eliminated groups: First, the physically defective, only, the deaf, the blind and the cripple; second, the truant and incorrigible; third, the mentally subnormal and feeble-minded. Each of these classes, of course, requires a specialized method of treatment.

The Deaf, so far as I can gather from the correspondence had with those engaged in their education, have no special topic for championship at this general session of the Conference, except the necessity for compulsory education. The reasons for this latter are, of course, the same as for hearing children, except that they are more emphatic because the deaf child is so largely dependent upon specialized training for his very language by which to overcome his natural isolation. It is therefore essentially true that the degree of his education is the measure of his independence.

The Blind, barring the question of language, are still more dependent upon specialized education than the deaf, because fewer fields of lucrative employment are open to them, hence, their training whether music, piano tuning, or other occupation, must be of a high order to enable them to compete with seeing people in the same specialty. Only a little over one-half of the blind children in the community of school age are receiving educational advantages. The necessity for compulsory education is evident. There are about 70,000 blind in the United States of all ages. About 4,500 are in special schools.

The blind present some problems peculiar to themselves. While the purpose of this paper is to discuss general principles rather than details, two matters of general public interest should be referred to as suggested by Supt. Thos. S. McAloney of Pittsburg, viz.:

> First: The parents and relatives of a blind child naturally spoil him. They anticipate his every want and he is not required to do anything useful either for himself or others, and when he is finally brought to school his hands are weak and practically useless. He cannot care for himself and it takes years of hard work to overcome the defects caused by his lack of training. The parents of a blind child should treat him as they treat his seeing brother or sister. He should be required to perform little household duties and taught to dress and care for himself. He should be sent out to romp and play like other children and get the fresh air and exercise needed to build up his body. He should be made to feel that he is a responsible creature and that something is expected from him.
>
> The general public, also, in many respects, sap the self-reliance of the blind. Through their sympathy and generosity they encourage the blind to be beggars.
>
> Second: More than one-third of the cases of blindness in infancy is preventable. Carelessness or ignorance on the part of nurses and mothers, and sometimes of physicians, in the treatment of the eyes of the new-born infant is accountable for a large number of cases of blindness. A campaign of education is being carried on in several states (more particularly in the State of New York), showing the people how blindness can be prevented. This campaign has resulted in much good and blindness is now on the decrease.
>
> The State of New York has a law requiring nurses and physicians to report all cases of new-born babies with weak eyes, and homes for blind babies and babies with weak eyes are now established in several of our large cities. These babies receive treatment from the most skillful oculists and more than one-fourth of them are restored to either normal or partial sight.

Of the large number of blind, however, in this country, over two-thirds lost their sight after school age.

The Deaf-Blind, even, are no longer barred from education, thanks to the highly specialized training devised for Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller, and now being applied to other pupils in this country as demonstrated so beautifully by Dr. Tate and Miss Blanche Hanson in the case of Vera Gammon.

The Cripples are now being provided where necessary with transportation to school at public expenses in some of our larger cities. Their right to surgical assistance is also being more generally recognized. I am proud that Minnesota has a hospital school for cripples—a regular state institution. I may state in passing, that it owes its origin to the simple, earnest, disinterested statements and appeal of a crippled young woman, to the appropriation

committee of a Minnesota legislature, and its permanent establishment to the excellent management and succesful work of its medical superintendent and his associates.

Truants and Incorrigibles form another partially eliminated group, the discussion of whose treatment is not suggested by the title of this paper; but truants, incorrigibles and mentally deficient classes, overlap much more than the public at large imagine. Many cases of apparent mental dullness and many others of apparent incorrigibility are due to common causes, viz., lowered physical vitality from poor diet, poor ventilation, nervous excitement, cigarette smoking, and depressing hygienic conditions generally, or immoral, vicious and depraved influences that stunt or pervert the natural instincts and impulses of childhood, or possibly deprivation from educational opportunities by forced child labor. Apparent dullness may result from unrecognized defective vision or hearing, irritability of disposition from reflex irritations—the presence of adenoid growths in the air passages, etc. The most valuable work that a school medical inspector can do is to carefully examine these cases physically and mentally, and the information so obtained, when supplemented by investigations as to their home environments and the report of teachers—when in school—will practically determine their classification. After the physician has employed his skill to the removel of remedial causes some will proceed successfully in the common schools, some will require temporary discipline in a parental school, some will be assigned to the classes for backward children and some will be found truly feeble-minded.

This leads to the special consideration of *Backward and Feeble-Minded* children. The terms employed in designating these classes do not have the same meaning when used by different people, hence, the necessity of explaining my own interpretation of them.

By a backward child, I mean one who is simply slow to learn, but whose whole intellectual nature is well balanced; who in proportion to his mental grasp, possesses good judgment; who, while he learns slowly, reasons correctly, and whose judgment, so far as his limited experience goes, is good; who possesses that indefinable something that we call common sense, and the power of application, so that his progress, even though it be slow, is continuous. Such children may not be able to make sufficient progress in the grades of the common schools to be kept in the regular classes, but, if proper opportunity is given them, will develop into good average citizenship. The

teacher may not recognize this condition from his work with books, and pronounce him feeble-minded; but the child must be studied with reference to his aptitude and application to other things coming into his life. Boys of this character not infrequently have been dropped from the public schools as failures, who afterward made successful, though not brilliant, business men. Some of them have been to the public institutions for feeble-minded, and are among the few who go back to their communities and cease to be a burden to the commonwealth. The training of these is the special function of the special classes in the public schools.

The Feeble-Minded Child, even of the highest grade, lacks in ability for persistent applicatoin; or, should he possess this in a reasonable degree, he lacks capacity for good judgment, the common sense so necessary to properly interpret his own relation to others. He is always in a greater or less degree out of harmony with the outer world. His capacity for intellectual development, or acquiring skill in manual pursuits, is limited. He is not only slow in the improvement he makes, but he is unable to reach the degree of development which the backward child can attain. He is handicapped and his limitations fixed by some abnormality of the brain or nervous system. His most valuable asset is his capacity for acquired and assigned routine industry. He it is whose life should be under continuous supervision that his energies may be properly and economically directed; and as he contributes his best efforts, whether they represent more than the equivalent of his support, a half of his support, a tenth of his support, or an absolute dependence, he is entitled to a happy and protected life.

The correlation of the public schools and the public institutions for children with reference to the borderland cases, is of the utmost importance. Theoretically no one questions the advisability of retaining in the public schools every child who can make reasonable progress therein towards successful citizenship; and very few who have had the opportunity and taken the pains to study the matter closely, question the necessity of retaining the truly feeble-minded (or at least these as a class) permanently under institution guardianship. The practical difficulty is for the common school authorities to properly diagnose the case of the pupil who, for any of the causes above enumerated, drops behind, in, or out of the regular school classes. There is a special field for the organization and maintenance of classes for backward and for truant children under

the supervision of the public school system, especially in the cities where the number of pupils properly belonging to said classes is sufficient to justify the expense involved. The important functions of these special classes, as already indicated, are, first, to make a more careful diagnosis of cases; second, eliminate the unsuited and secure medical and hygienic assistance where necessary; third, give the backward child his opportunity; and fourth, collect data concerning conditions that contribute to causation. Merely backward children should be started successfully on their independent careers, and truly feeble-minded children should be, after due trial, returned to their homes to be committed to the public institution, whenever their condition at home and the interests of the child make it desirable. Naturally the reluctance of parents, first, to recognize mental deficiency in their own children; and second, to send them away from home, even when their limitations are more or less definitely recognized, will result in sending some children to these classes that should be sent to the public institution. The history of the special classes, both in England and this country, shows that this latter has been the tendency. Over sanguine advocates of these classes, like earlier organizers of institutions for the feeble-minded, promised too much. In London, England, special classes were organized sixteen years ago, and there are now over sixty classes and three thousand pupils in that city. The same heroic courage that instituted this work has since required a careful analysis of results. In Birmingham was organized about six years ago, what is termed an After-Care Committee, that has kept a careful record of the pupils from these classes in Birmingham. In October, 1904, Mrs. Pinsent, for the committee, made a report on the eighty-three cases of mentally defectives whose histories they had.* From this report, since published in the Charity Organization Review (March, 1905), and the Journal of Psycho-Asthenics (March, 1906), we learn that only twenty-six were wage-earners, and from this report I quote:

> "The average weekly wage has gone down and not up, as it should. This is probably due to two causes: the general depression of trade, during which unskilled feeble-minded individuals are the first to suffer for want of work; and also the undoubted fact that feeble-minded persons tend to degenerate on leaving school, when discipline and control are relaxed, and there is nothing to counteract the bad influence of degraded surroundings. It should also be borne in mind that many of these wage-earning

*Read at the Guild-Hall Conference in England in October, 1904.

> cases frequently change their situations, and that, therefore the average year's earnings would give a lower figure owing to employment being intermittent. From these facts, it is safe to conclude that only a small percentage even of the wage earners will become entirely self-supporting. Yet all these wage-earning cases are capable of work, and it is probable that if working under supervision in a colony, this work would be much more remunerative, and it would undoubtedly be perfectly continuous. So much for those who have left our special schools capable of earning wages. We still have to consider the larger class who are stated in the annual report to be doing no work, though many are capable of simple manual work under supervision. There are thirty-three of such cases recorded. These, added to those who are wage-earners, but incapable of remaining so, would make a very large percentage of feeble-minded individuals who will eventually have to be supported by the community. I have elsewhere worked out the percentage, based on our after-care evidence, and the result was about seventeen per cent; the remaining eighty-three per cent. will require permanent protection and partial support."

Mrs. Pinsent suggests that these results would be more satisfactory if the children could be compelled to attend the special classes with more regularity and be under their influence and training for a longer period; and, in addition to that, the introduction of manual training would be of great advantage, and suggests that work begun in the schools could be continued in the industrial colony with better results to the individual.

Turning to this country, where the first "Special Class" was opened in Providence in 1894, my search for a statement of results discloses the following from Miss Scofield, supervisor of the kindergarten department to which these classes in that city are assigned, published in the superintendent's report for 1905-6:

> While it has been proved that special classes connected with the public school system can do much for the development of our children, by increasing the mental power and making them less of a burden in the home and community by giving them interests and opening avenues of usefulness, yet it is useless to think of their ever being like normal children, or becoming normal men and women. They will always lack judgment and common sense, and must ever work under guidance. They will also lack in power of self-control, and this makes them peculiarly susceptible to evil influences. They easily become victims of the vicious, or centers of vicious influences themselves. If they have wise guidance and good home influences, all may go well, but, if not, the only safe thing for them and for the community is for them to be placed in an institution, where they may be protected for life. A number of those who have left our schools in the last three years had been so trained that, with a little additional training along special lines, they could easily have paid their board in an institution in manual work. But, in many instances where children have left school to go to work, the next thing we have heard "they had lost their job," and perhaps gone to another, and presently they are drifting about the streets, a menace to society, and it is only a matter of time

when they, or their descendants, will have to be supported at public expense. Our schools are doing much, especially for the borderland cases, and for those whose parents would never consent to have the children removed from home, but these schools can never take the place of an institution where they would have special care through twenty-four hours of the day, instead of five.

These testimonies taken from the oldest classes—one under the educational conditions of England and the other the corresponding but quite different educational conditions of America—are exceedingly valuable. On the other hand, the schools for feeble-minded have been seeking to solve their particular problems. Many of us were taught by our predecessors that the home life in a restricted community, with the various activities and interests of the world outside, reduced, as it were to miniature, and with an absolute ban on marriage and reproduction, afforded the best and happiest solution of the question of the feeble-minded. The experience of the last two decades has strengthened this sentiment and has served to develop a little more definitely the policy in regard to the character of training involved. Less value is now placed upon the long time given to classroom work for the higher mental grades, and the line is drawn less sharply between the higher and lower grades. In other words, we are emphasizing industrial training and trying to reach larger numbers and to fit them for useful employment of a simple nature in an agricultural and industrial community, rather than to give intensified and long term training to a few only. We find that better results are obtained as to industry and happiness—and I think they should be associated with our people—by colonizing the trained boys as they grow to manhood, at some distance from the parent institution. The latter with adequate facilities for classification, will serve two important functions, viz., first, the maintenance of a complete training school for both sexes; and, second, provision in separate and suitable quarters for the humane and kindly care of the helpless and low mental grades. The question of colonizing the girls has not yet been worked out, and the nature of the employments to which they are best suited, has made colonizing unnecessary so far; the provision for colonizing the older boys removed the one possible reason that might otherwise be cited in its favor.

EPILEPTIC CHILDREN

should receive more attention than has heretofore been given them. They should not attend the ordinary school classes, both because of the effect of their seizures upon normal children, and because

they should not be forced or allowed to follow a set curriculum of study intended for healthy children. School work should be prescribed for them upon competent medical advice, just as a dose of medicine would be; the development of physical health being of supreme importance. Generally speaking, life in the open air, a carefully regulated dietary, plenty of physical exercise and active interest in constructive or other definite physical occupations, are very important. Epileptics are prone to introspection and their friends usually unwittingly encourage this tendency by constant reference to their disease when talking with them or of them in their presence. They are usually either over indulged or so frequently crossed that the irritability induced by the disease itself, is increased and intensified. The fact of the occurrence of epileptic seizures, is in itself an indication of a highly sensitive nervous organism and suggests the danger of intellectual and emotional overstimulation and the necessity for definitely planned motor activities and the development of self-control. Special classes organized for epileptics should have a medical adviser skilled in neurology and thoroughly versed in the nature of the particular group of symptoms known as epilepsy. There is no known specific for the cure of this affliction, but there is a possibility of a developmental increase of stability in the nervous system during childhood and adolescence under favorable conditions, which latter the competent medical adviser is best qualified to designate.

To my mind the greatest sociological problem involved in the relation of the public schools to the special classes is the proper handling of some of the borderland cases; those who lack the mental and moral stability of the typical backward child, but whose quick perceptions and plausible though superficial characters so readily mislead their relatives, teachers and neighbors. It is a well known fact that no small percentage of criminals and prostitutes are derived from these borderland groups. In our own state's prison over seven per cent. of the inmates and in the reformatory about ten per cent. are pronounced of inferior mentality by the warden and superintendent, respectively. If to these were added the inmates derived originally from the truant and incorrigible groups, the percentage would be increased very much. Again add to these the thousands of tramps and vagrants and other direct or indirect dependents and then remember that a very large percentage of these cases could have been directed into normal, useful citizenship

by the operation of an extension of our educational system such as suggested, and the importance of this matter can be more fully appreciated. We can not overlook the question of heredity, but on the other hand we can not emphasize too much the necessity for good environment for little children and youth.

The study of the home environments of mentally defective and incorrigible children, already referred to, is a matter of immense importance in the future study of causation. The juvenile courts and auxiliary probation systems are bringing intelligent study to bear upon many of these borderland cases. The proximity of the public schools to their homes enables the teacher, the medical and truant officers to learn at first hand so much more of the home conditions and influences that affect the natures and temperaments of the children than it is possible for institution officials to obtain.

There are ominous indications of a decided increase in the proportionate number of state beneficiaries and we should utilize all reasonable means of acquiring information tending to throw light upon causation.

This generation may not be able to discern from the data collected by the agencies mentioned, the family physician and the state institutions, all the causes or suggest all the remedies, but let us hope that the experience of this age may become the wisdom of the next, and the Eutopian dreams of the present may become the practical realizations of the future. Be this as it may, there is no excuse for neglecting the duties we owe to the children of today.

THE INSTITUTION AS A LABORATORY FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

E. R. JOHNSTONE, SUPERINTENDENT NEW JERSEY TRAINING SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED BOYS AND GIRLS, VINELAND, N. J.

It is necessary, under the title of this talk, to broaden the usual meaning of the word laboratory. I would have it mean a place of study and investigation, from the results of which the institution men and women may offer certain suggestions to the workers in the public schools. The public school teacher has no time to make careful studies of her pupils, neither has the principal nor superintendent. The public schools today may well be com-

pared with the great manufacturing plants, and just as those need properly equipped laboratories in which the question of mixture of materials, combinations of coloring matters, etc., shall be studied and solved, so do the schools need laboratories in which the great questions of power, material and training shall have close scrutiny under the eye of an expert.

As the field of the public school is widened, or as conditions are more closely noted, it is constantly found that blind, deaf, epileptic, feeble-minded and incorrigible children are present in the classes to an alarming degree. Whether or not the State should provide for these in special institutions does not signify at present. It is a fact that it does not, and that for many years at least it will not make anything like adequate provision. There are, besides, many children whose defect is not sufficiently pronounced to justify their being sent to an institution and still they have no place in the regular grades. Parents can not or will not keep these children at home, and so the schools must in some way make provision for them. As we in the institutions, working with the more pronounced cases, pursue our investigations, we find that the lessons we must learn are the best lessons for the public school teachers. The conditions we find are only the conditions of the public schools greatly exaggerated, the methods we adopt are merely the methods which should be used in the public schools elaborated in finer detail. We have public school types under the microscope.

The demand for room—for money to build new school houses—for more and better-paid teachers—is crowding out all possibility of the establishment of laboratories in the public schools. See how long it has taken to get medical inspection and how little that does more than look for contagious or infectious disease, pediculosis, ring-worm, etc. It has its place and the physician and nurse have their places, but it is to the psychologist or paidologist that we must look for child study results. Most institutions are so situated that they can not or will not make any effort to provide the experts needed for the training of teachers, but it will come. I hope to live to see the day when a large percentage of the public institutions of the country shall give laboratory training and special direction to those who expect to teach in the special classes or day schools for the blind, deaf, feeble-minded and backward or atypical.

As has so often been the case with the beginning of great lines of work, private initiative is necessary. The State or municipality follows when the individual leads. I wish to remind you at this point that I am not going to speak of ideal conditions and theories, but merely to report certain facts now in actual practice. I trust, too, that you will pardon me whenever I speak in the first person, but most of my illustrations are from our own institution.

I want to say a few words upon:

1st. "The Scientific Study of Children."
2d. "Text-books."
3d. "The Attitude and Training of Teachers."
4th. "The Training of the Child."

THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF CHILDREN.

For several years a body of practical public school men have met twice a year at the Training School. This body gradually came to be known as the staff of consulting paidologists, and from these meetings has grown the summer school for public school teachers and the department of psychological research. The chief of the staff devotes his entire time to investigating the mental condition of the feeble-minded children in order to find the relationship between their mental processes and those of normal children. This work is now about a year old. Even thus far we have demonstrated very clearly some facts.

We are making weight and height records, studying likes and dislikes, etc., and in addition are making studies of mental fatigue and motor control. We test the condition of the deeper nervous system by the winking and patella reflexes; the rapidity of voluntary movement by tapping a telegraph key; the co-ordination of eye and hand in several ways; the muscular memory; the power of association; the memory span; and, by means of the chronoscope, we measure the time it takes the brain to act in response to various stimuli. The powers of endurance, attention and will and the diurnal course of efficiency are tested by the ergograph.

The automatograph, which registers the movement of the hand when the child closes his eyes and tries to hold the hand still, and the ataxiagraph, which registers the swaying of the child's body when he stands with closed eyes are tests of sensitivity to

passive movement and its control. These movements are significant, and their variation from normal would seem to give us some clue to general capability of inhibition. It is interesting to note that the lower the grade of intelligence the greater the sway from side to side.

The results in the laboratory are making us feel that we are finding means to record the child's ability to control and direct his own body. If this can be even approximately registered will it not give us a much more satisfactory basis of classification than any we now have—a classification along the line of ability to do?

WHAT DOES OUR LABORATORY TEACH US OF TEXT-BOOKS?

What may be said in this connection is meant particularly for work with children in the special classes. In dealing with these children we find it necessary to use the simplest means and to follow those great axioms of educational procedure, "from the known to the unknown, the concrete before the abstract," etc. The child must have the art of a thing, not the science of it; his mind is synthetic, not analytic; he wishes to construct, not criticise; he strives for the product of his work, not the knowledge that comes of the working. The best progress is made by using those objects near at hand and preferably those which have life.

I have never yet found a text-book made by a man or a woman which I considered as valuable or helpful to a child as the book he makes for himself, and if feeble-minded children can make text-books surely normal-minded children can.

We hold that one of the most valuable things about manual training is that it places the child so that he corrects himself. The errors prevent the continuation of the work until they are corrected. This should be so in reading, writing, arithmetic, etc.

Let us look for a few moments at the methods used to teach a feeble-minded child to read, and I believe you will admit that it would be a good plan to teach all children in a somewhat similar way.

First, the child must know at every point just where he stands. He must not be required to store his memory with abstract facts to be used at some future time. The alphabet, you know, is made up of abstract symbols, as is also the multiplication table (as such). The use of vertical, horizontal and oblique lines in draw-

ing, of the scale in music, of curved and straight lines in writing, of a list of dates in history and conjugations and declensions in grammar are all, if used in teaching a child the subject, the most killing abstractions.

In having our child learn to read—which you must remember is entirely different from reading to learn—we have him make his own readers. The steps leading up to this go far back, really covering the entire period of the child's life, but we can only consider it as it applies to the child after he comes to school. He has observed some things, and he speaks fairly well; nevertheless, we must give attention to his speech if we shall teach him to read well. The power of speech is largely a measure of mental ability. All training, therefore, in expressing himself vocally is training for the child. He must be encouraged to talk about what he has seen or sees; to observe, that he may talk about it, to imitate it, to draw it. Much of this must be given. In our laboratory schools this work is done sometimes for three or four years very carefully and painstakingly, but always with the idea that it is leading toward reading.

Let me say right here that it is lack of this careful preliminary training that makes the teaching of reading and writing so hard, particularly in the special classes. If approached before the child is ready, reading and writing become merely the repetition of hieroglyphics with but little meaning.

Now comes the making of the reader. The method of procedure is not greatly different from that of approaching the ordinary primer. Single familiar words are selected, written upon the blackboard by the teacher, and copied upon the blackboard by the pupil, then read and combined with other words, always using familiar expressions, etc., until the children have fair written and printed vocabularies.

But it is at this point that we feel the need of a change from the ordinary way. Reading and writing came late in human culture, and it requires much intelligence to get real use and value from them. Many subnormal children can make mattresses, sew, paint and farm, who can never learn to read and write. The fatigue point comes in a surprisingly short time, in learning to read and write. Many of our children can plow or cobble or play hard all day with but little fatigue, but are actually exhausted after reading a line or drawing a square. It is the in-

tensity of the will, not the strain of the work, which causes this. So to relieve this condition we go back over the old ground again. The class decides that it will make a story about something familiar to them all. They talk about it and use some form of expression which they know. They imitate it, walk and run like it, in fact, become it, in so far as their imagination will let them. Nouns are first written, then follow verbs. They are acted out, copied, read and acted again. The teacher makes haste slowly, The children must be handled as individuals in the special classes, and each may want to express in writing a different idea of the thing under consideration and must be permitted to do so. After awhile short sentences are written by the child.

After board work the lessons are written on sheets of common manilla paper with soft pencils and each child says just what he pleases and can. In other words, he is molding his reader after his fashion—not being molded to the regulation book. Often he says but a few words of a sentence because he can't write the words he would say. Often the sense does not appear as all there, but he knows what he wanted to say. In reading his own sentences he often forgets some of the words he has written, but he knows the sense and that is but parallel to the experience he has when learning to speak, but every time he finds such an error it shows itself to him.

When the lesson is completed it will be found that nearly every child has a different lesson written. They are all on the same topic, but expressed and impressed with the individuality of the child, and that is what has given them interest and makes the child feel that he is somebody, and that is the secret of power.

There are, then, two thoughts in connection with this making of readers. One is that the child knows all about what he is doing all the time, the other is that it gives him an interest not found in the ordinary way. Theoretically, we all believe that the school work should fit the child, but in practice we largely make the child fit the school. This is just a suggestive thought to consider the child's individuality.

Every child likes to have his work saved. We all like to have our thoughts put in permanent form. The child has just such longings in his heart. His own made text-books do this, and it will pay us to cater to him.

There is no very good reason why in the beginnings of their

ordinary school work children should not make their own arithmetics and grammars and geographies, and indeed all of their text-books. With the enthusiasm of creators and explorers they would then take their steps.

We use as our text-books our grounds, our trees, birds, animals and flowers, the desks and tables in the school rooms and even the teachers and pupils. This is practicable and possible in the special classes, and will, I believe, have a larger place in the regular grades. Only when the child needs the inspiration of reading in a "printed" book is he ready for one.

THE TRAINING AND ATTITUDE OF THE TEACHER.

There come into the special classes the peripheral defectives—the blind and deaf; the mental defectives—imbeciles and feeble-minded; the backward children—those who have slow mentality or have been out of school for long periods or do not understand our language; and the incorrigibles—running all the way from the normally bad child to the moral imbecile.

The teacher who undertakes the training of these children must, if she will be successful, have a pretty definite knowledge of the material with which she is to work, and training in the methods in vogue in the best institutions in the country. She should know what mental deficiencies mean, how caused and how best overcome. She should be able to make simple tests of the special senses and know how to train them to their highest efficiency, and she should have had enough practical work in the study of individual children to enable her to go about it in a way to get results. I know of no normal school in the country that gives such training; indeed in most it is sadly neglected and perhaps one or two lectures by the psychologist is all they ever hear of the feeble-minded until brought face to face with a room full of them. Last winter the School of Pedagogy of the New York University offered a course to those who desired training, and this summer the University of Pennsylvania offers such a course, but their work is of necessity theoretical. These, I believe, are the first colleges in the country to offer such a course. Four years ago the New Jersey Training School for Feeble-minded, recognizing the need for practically trained teachers, commenced the Vineland Summer School, and so offered itself as a laboratory.

Throughout the country are special classes for blind, deaf and

backward children as a part of the public school system. Theoretical training in the colleges, universities and normal schools will be very valuable, but the great need is for practical instruction for teachers in the institutions where the defects are greatly exaggerated and where the rock bottom of methods may be observed.

Now a word as to the teacher's attitude toward work in the special class. If she does not want to do it, it is a mistake to give it to her. If she does it only because there is more money paid, it is wrong to give it to her. If she is not strong physically, of good mental poise, motherly in her instincts, full-blooded, warm-hearted and loving, she will defeat your aims. For these children the teacher must possess much more tact, resourcefulness and patience than is ever needed for normals.

Then she must have confidence and faith—a faith that sees beyond the shadow of the stone wall which has stopped the progress of the child, in to the broad fields and bright sunshine beyond.

The teacher of defectives stands high in the eyes of her children, close even unto God. They are slow to believe any wrong of her. Their little souls are full of affection. To them "teacher" is the embodiment of all good and her attitude must be one that lives up to the child's expectations in every degree.

THE TRAINING OF THE CHILD.

Having the child all day every day we often forget that there is any mental and moral and physical training. We think of it altogether. The teacher of the "specials" must forget that the child has any life outside the school room—as far as her training is concerned. She must minister unto his threefold wants right in her room.

The chief criticism of the work done in the public schools is that it does not fit children for life. We must confess that much as we would like to have all children complete the high school course a great many leave long before this. This being the case, our daily routine should be such that no matter when a child leaves school he should be fitted as well as possible for the life he will probably lead. The feeble-minded child who can never learn enough reading and writing to make reasonable use of them in all of his life, spends his time learning to use his hands in a practical way, and while I would not do away with writing, reading, etc.,

in the early school years, I would make them very secondary and plan my course of study so that the normal child, when he does leave school early and so have to earn his living by his hands, shall know enough so that his earning shall be a pleasure. This will make his work a dignity, not an indignity. He will have a knowledge which shall give him power and so fit him for his life. Too often we begin to fit him for a life he can never by any possibility hope to lead and so we have made him a misfit.

One of our little girls, after several years of training, we permit to be the kindergarten assistant. She does not merely assist the teacher in things pertaining to all the class work, but she has a part of the class for her very own, and the teacher is to her what the principal is to the teacher. The child has responsibility —also authority.

The free school book idea is but a sample of many of the present-day things which lean far toward the destroying of responsibility on the part of the pupil, and unless the teacher realizes this and takes positive steps to counteract them, she is allowing a strong point of training to escape her. I merely mention the responsibility idea in passing. You see it might be made the subject of an hour's talk. Responsibility begets power and consciousness of strength.

Then we learn in the institution the necessity of happiness. People often think of the school for the feeble-minded as a gloomy place—a place where timid souls cower in fear under the rigid rule of the institution. The opposite is true. We must give encouragement and opportunity for expression. Everything is cheery. After all, you know we are all aiming at happiness, and so we say: "The child must first be happy." So our discipline is all based upon rewards, and their loss is the punishment for breaches of discipline. Everything is a privilege. It is a privilege even to rise at 4:30 in winter and go over to the barn to milk. Like Tom Sawyer, we don't require these things—we permit them. It is a privilege to make beds—to go to school—to care for the more helpless and those with filthy habits—and because every one considers it so, it is so. We have greater opportunities because we have our child all of the time, but the idea can be carried out much farther than at present in the public schools if it is only tried. Many of the public school teachers who graduate from our summer school testify to that fact. If a

child doesn't want to do its regular work or go to school we say: "Very well, you don't need to," but we do not permit it to do anything else, and soon the doing nothing is much greater punishment than the doing would have been, especially if the child who does the other's work receives extra praise or reward for it.

The last great lesson the institutions have for the public schools is the lesson of the "spirit." The spirit in which the work is done.

DISCUSSION ON DEFECTIVES AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

DR. FERNALD—This able report of Dr. Rogers well illustrates the modern application of our knowledge of mental defect to the study of crime and misdemeanor.

The public school is the place to study the beginnings of mental defect and moral delinquency. The public school special classes, established in Providence, Boston, New York, Chicago and Philadelphia, are all proving fertile sources of primary information as regards the causes and conditions which surround mental defect in its beginning.

The school in Providence was a part of the movement to separate the delinquent children from the ordinary school children. The opprobious term "Truant School" was not used. The troublesome children were segregated from the best children and placed with the best teachers. It was found that many of these so-called incorrigible children were so because they were defective, and once the defect was known, the problem of caring for them became simple. If for no other reason than that normal children should not be annoyed and hindered by these defectives, they should be isolated from the ordinary schools and put in classes for defective children.

The report of this committee emphasizes the practical results of the work of the English special classes and of the Providence classes, showing that the defective child is defective from a condition which is permanent. While much is possible in the way of development and improvement, the belief of teachers of these classes that under normal conditions of public school life these children might be restored to full citizenship, has not been realized. Perhaps the chief function of these classes in America has been to demonstrate that the community is not the place for an adult imbecile. A defective boy or a defective girl may be tolerated, but an adult human being, with the mind of a child and the body and passions of an adult, is a foreign body in any community. These classes have demonstrated perhaps more graphically than ever before the fact that while they will improve under training and education perhaps to a point of usefulness and self-respect not obtained hitherto, yet when adult life is reached some provision must be made to protect not only these people themselves, but the community from the consequences of their incapacity.

MRS. AMIGH—I think that everyone who is called upon to take charge of delinquent boys or girls, will find that the class which has been spoken of this morning at such length is the greatest problem we have to solve.

It may be easy, when we have a real idiotic child, to know exactly what to do. The greater problem that comes to us is where an almost normal child is delinquent or who has committed some misdemeanor, that is not a problem of self-control. We can take some of these children and instruct them and turn them back into good normal citizens, but it is the border line child that is the trouble. People refuse to believe that such girls are mentally defective. Their own parents will not admit it. They go before the judge, and the judge won't admit it, and so they are sent to the schools for delinquents, and stay there during the time that the law will allow them, and return, perhaps, to the same environment they came from, only to become a menace to the community. This class has been the trouble with me and the problem for me to solve ever since I have been in charge of school. There is a large percentage of girls sent to us who are capable of being trained and taught to work, and who really become self-supporting providing someone else furnishes the backbone, and a safeguard over them as long as they live. There is a cause for all this defective mentality; it is largely inherited. In taking the histories of the girls we find that their parents before them are mentally defective, and have been allowed to marry and bring children into the world.

T. F. Fitzgibbon—I wish to speak for a moment for the smaller city schools, the schools of two thousand children. It is evident to any one who has had experience in the public schools of the smaller cities, particularly where there is no medical examination, and very little examination of any kind through public effort, that children are very often improperly classified by inexperienced and thoughtless teachers, as belonging to the borderland cases. For five years in our little city, our best paid grade teacher has given a large part of her time to bringing up to class standards groups of children who were behind in their studies and were considered, often, by their teachers, dull or backward or well-nigh hopeless cases. In most cases these children have been found to be neither dull nor hopeless, but to be backward because of insufficient food, or from the fact that through spasmodic attendance and other causes they had fallen behind their classes and had become discouraged. Two or three hours per week, for eight or ten weeks, of individual work by this teacher, usually redeems a whole group of children from the charge of dullness and hopelessness and lifts them up through months of failure to reasonable success, at least. Last year four boys and girls who had been pronounced defectives by former teachers entered the high school. These formed a group that had received individual attention and concentration of effort for a while and had been brought up in their work. Each of these made a fair record in the high school. It is true that no child is equally strong in all his school subjects Teachers often brand a child who is weak in some one subject as a defective and wish to be rid of him, that he may not be a drag to their classes. We have children going through all the grades and the high school with marked degrees of success who, if this argument from many teachers was heeded, would be eliminated entirely from public school instruction.

I have in mind now a girl who has brought honor to her school and community. Through all the grades and the high school she exhibited a marked weakness in mathematics, though she was a most faithful student in that line. She was strong in music and literature and biology, and good in history and languages. Her teachers, all along the line, insisted that she should be failed because of her weakness in mathematics and thus forced out of the school as a defective. The school management believed that she had realized, through her patient efforts, all that she was capable of realizing from the study of mathematics, and insisted on her passing on and graduating, thus saving her to a life of happiness and usefulness. I think that many more girls in the high schools might be saved by proper attention. Usually the principal of the high school is a man, and the boys naturally look to him for advice, but the girls at this most critical age feel that they have no one in particular to confide in concerning delicate questions. In our high school of three hundred pupils, about half of them girls, we have a mature, sensible, experienced teacher, who gives a large share of her time to consulting with and advising the girls and their mothers. She takes note of their habits of dress for various kinds of weather, and insists that their mothers give close attention to the question. She discusses with the girls in suitable groups, manners and conduct, both public and private. She watches them at regular periods and advises them individually and privately concerning delicate matters that receive far too little attention in most homes. She usually finds that failure in high school work is not due to mental dullness or defectiveness, but to bad habits in dress, eating and sleeping; to social conditions and to physical conditions peculiar to the sex; all of which may be greatly remedied if not entirely corrected. No mixed high school can afford to be without this most important department of work and oversight for girls. It rests with the public schools, by proper supervision and a larger degree of work with the individual pupil, to very greatly reduce the number of so-called borderland cases.

Dr. Tate, Minnesota—In Minnesota we have just enacted a law requiring the attendance of the deaf at some school for their education. In looking into that matter I was astonished to find that while it is a matter of almost universal law in this country that speaking and hearing children are required to attend school for a part, at least, of a school period each year, very few states have any law requiring the deaf to attend school. The numerous letters I have received from superintendents of corresponding institutions in other states lead me to believe that the necessity for such a law is recognized generally. It will be understood at once that the deaf are under the absolute necessity of receiving what we give them in order to establish them and make them self-supporting and self-reliant, good citizens. A short time ago I estimated the number of years pupils attended our school, which I suppose is data that may be relied upon for all schools of the kind. I found that our pupils came to us on an average for less than five years—a very large per cent. of our children after being under instruction in our school for two or three or four years, are

kept at home because they are useful, and a large number of deaf children in this State have never attended our school and still are of school age. So we settled the question by a law compelling them. It was surprising, also, to see the opposition which developed when the bill was under discussion in our legislature. It passed the senate by an overwhelming majority, and the house by a bare majority. The reason assigned for the opposition was the question as to whether the State has a right to take children from parents and put them in a school for their education. It seems to me that as charity workers we should use our influence to enact such a law as Minnesota has just enacted, that not only requires the attendance of these children at these schools, but also requires the enumeration of these children by the teachers of the various districts. That enumeration is sent, as a rule, to the County Superintendent of Schools. That Superintendent sends the data he has received to me and I am put in correspondence with the parents of these children. We hope for good results.

THE NECESSITY OF PUBLIC PROVISION FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE BLIND.

J. PERRINE HAMILTON, SUPERINTENDENT, MICHIGAN EMPLOYMENT INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, SAGINAW, MICH.

The opportunity of discussing the necessity of public provision for the employment of the blind before such an assembly as this is one for which I feel profoundly grateful.

For years the juvenile blind in this country and Europe have had wonderful advantages for acquiring a literary and musical education placed at their disposal by the state. How inadequate such an education is to make blind people self-respecting, self-supporting citizens of the community, is shown by a glance at general results attained. In Michigan, my home state, where conditions and opportunities for blind or sighted will average with other states of the Union, our school at Lansing has turned out about five hundred blind people during the past twenty-five years. Of this five hundred, less than five per cent. have become self-supporting. A careful study of statistics would show as low a percentage elsewhere. Now, consider the further fact that only about five per cent. of the blind of this country attend the schools at all, and you will see that the hundreds of thousands of dollars spent every year in the education of the blind make only one-fourth of one per cent. of them self-maintaining citizens. This is not a criticism of the schools, nor would I be understood as gauging the results of their

work by the standard of dollars and cents alone. The point I wish to make is this: Schools for the literary and musical education of the young blind, which are about all we have had up to date, do a very small part of the work which should be done for our blind population.

Educating blind children is easy and comparatively inexpensive; making blind adults wholly or partially self-supporting is hard—only those who have tried it know how hard.

Up to date, nearly all the millions spent in behalf of the blind have been expended along lines of the least resistance. Only three years ago, when I was entering this work, a superintendent of one of the largest and oldest and best schools for the blind in America said to me: "We take blind children in the kindergarten and lead them to the gates of Harvard College, and then we wash our hands of them. No one can do more for them; it is no use to try. You are wasting your time." One of the most pitiable things of which I ever knew was a graduate of that superintendent's school and of Harvard taking his place on the New York City pier to get his share of the city's alms doled out once a year to the blind. I have yet to be convinced that blind people educated for poorhouses are happier than those sent to them without college education; and the selfish egotism of literary and musical educators of the blind who discourage work along practical, industrial lines, because they are too lazy or too indifferent or too jealous to wish to see such work succeed, has done much to keep willing philanthropists from trying, and fair trials from being made.

I shall not try in this discussion to make any sentimental appeal for the blind, but I do wish to get clearly before you a few facts and statements which carefully gathered statistics and painstaking experiments will prove and verify. In the United States there are between ninety and one hundred thousand blind people. Of these, fully ten per cent. are capable of working and being taught. At present there is public provision for the training and employment of less than seven hundred of these nine or ten thousand capable blind citizens. The few experiments made up to the present time have proven beyond a doubt that these blind people can be made wholly or partially self-supporting if trained and employed at public cost. The per capita cost to the commonwealth for so training and employing all the blind capable of taking training and employment would be from a half cent to a cent and a half per annum.

In Michigan it is costing one cent per year and I believe we have passed the most expensive period of our history.

What blindness means to an intelligent, capable man or woman is something which only the Lord and the devil and those who endure it know anything about; in their blackest nightmares those with sight can not even faintly imagine it, and unemployed blindness is as much worse as despair is worse than hope. The world is so busy and most blind people are so poor, that reading, entertainment, and amusement are out of reach. Employment, then, is the only solace and diversion left, and certainly this is as little as this unfortunate class has a right to ask and expect of a generous and enlightened public. Employed blind people may sometimes forget that they are blind; perhaps only for a few minutes, but these minutes to them are worth more than the happiest days, or months, or years you have ever known.

At present we take good care of blind children and give most of them all the literary and musical education they need, and many of them more than they can possibly use; but if a man or woman loses sight after becoming eighteen or twenty years of age—at this period when help is needed most, when blindness seems a thousand times more insurmountable than it does to children growing up accustomed to it—in most parts of our country little or no provision is made to lend the helping hand so much required, or to furnish training or employment, the only things which can possibly bring any permanent solace or relief.

In an able article published in "Charities and The Commons," October 20, 1906, occurs the following sentence: "We will be greatly assisted in our study if we keep in mind that the question is the economic, commercial practicability of working in darkness and not the question of the desirability of employment for the adult blind." Had this sentence been published during the dark ages rather than the twentieth century, and in Tibet or Manchuria rather than the United States, it would have been more in keeping, both as to time and place. From the viewpoint of "economic, commercial practicability," the insane and idiots, epileptics and the helpless old and a very large percentage of the blind, should be put out of the way in the easiest, quickest, most inexpensive manner possible. But, thank God, I believe we have reached a stage in racial development where "economic, commercial practicability" is not the only determining factor in deciding such questions as are

constantly forcing themselves on the attention of the American people during the twentieth century.

As far as I can learn, there has scarce ever been an objection raised to spending the millions which have been spent in educating the youthful blind. Blind children are not unattractive; blind adults are. Blind children can read and speak and sing before legislatures; blind adults can not. Ninety per cent. of our population, in passing, will stop and speak to a blind child; ninety per cent. of the same population will go out of its way, if necessary, to avoid being compelled to speak to a blind adult. Teaching blind children is agreeable and pleasant; teaching blind adults is disagreeable and unpleasant. I do not make these statements as criticisms, but merely as facts which explain in part why training and employment for the adult blind have not been provided long ago.

The ground which I take, briefly stated, is this: If the public education of blind children is necessary and advisable, and I believe no one will question this, the public training of all adult blind needing and wishing such training, and the public employment of that portion of them who can not be made entirely self-supporting is just as necessary and just as advisable. In short, I believe that, considered from a combined humanitarian and economic standpoint, the necessity for public provision for the employment of the adult blind does exist.

Deplorable as it may seem, blindness, like insanity and many other evils, is increasing in this country, both absolutely and relatively. At present we have thousands of blind people who are willing and able to earn part, and many of them all, of their support. Unless public provision is made for the training of all of these thousands and the employment of part of them, there is no way in which they can even get the chance to work. That such training and employment can be given at a very small per capita cost to the public has been clearly demonstrated by every institution where this kind of work has been given a fair trial.

What trades, handicrafts, or professions are best adapted for the use of blind people are questions which a little time and a small amount of experimenting have gone far to solve. Among educators of the blind are found narrow as well as broad-minded men, and the man who advocates willow-work, and willow-work alone, as the only practical work for blind adults, is about as far from a solution of the problem as the other fellow who argues that all blind peo-

ple should be taught portrait painting or the use of astronomical instruments, or how to play pipe organs, because competition is limited in these fields. Fairly stated, the question is many times a local one. What will pay in Switzerland or Scotland might not in Minnesota or California. I earned fifteen hundred dollars one year tuning pianos in Michigan, but I couldn't have done this located in a small town in a sparsely settled region; and I could make a good living in any small town mending shoes.

A blind person with good mechanical ability can learn to repair shoes and can work fast enough to compete with sighted workmen. Any four corners will support a cobbling shop, so that those learning can return to their homes and start a small shop of their own, with the added advantage that the work is always brought and called for.

Perhaps this is not the place to discuss possible occupations for the blind; but it may be briefly stated that willow work, chair caning, broom making, copper and brass pounding, shoe mending and piano tuning can be taught adult blind people and can be followed with more or less profit, depending on the locality partly, and the person himself very largely. Aside from these trades, many of the professions are open to blind people, but those able to make their way in the professions will usually make their way unaided, so they do not need public help. From our institution we have turned out some very good salesmen and in this field they do well.

Here I wish to say just a few words about the general plan of our work in Michigan. Our plan, especially that part of it which involves rooming and boarding our apprentices and also our workmen, has been criticised by some workers for the blind. Much can be said on both sides of this question and it is possible that we have not yet passed the experimental stage. It is not making the statement too strong to say that up to the present time our plan has been an unqualified success. We have as little or less trouble with our blind people, drawn from all classes of society and all kinds of surroundings, with habits already formed, than does the average college faculty or university management with students presumably largely from good families and sent to pursue the higher studies. This is saying much in refutation of the statements made by many of our critics. Our buildings are separated far enough for all practical pur-

poses. The men and women room in different buildings, with the administration building located between them. In institutions where such failures as our critics draw attention to have been made, apparently no thought was given in the planning and erection of the buildings to the simplest principles involved to make good management possible. In several cases, offices, shop and rooms for women and men are located all in the same building, and then the conclusion is drawn by workers for the blind that the state has no right to try to lodge and board blind people because institutions built this way have not been an entire success. I think it is fair to say that this one dormitory method has worked as well among the blind as such a dormitory arrangement would in any modern college in this country. Blind people necessarily earn small wages and the theory that they should live outside such institutions as this, on account of the good they get from contact with the outside world, results in their living under saloons, over saloons, in garrets and cellars and basements, and anywhere they can get in cheap. It seems to me as reasonable that the state should furnish board, room and care at cost, as that it should furnish materials for a workshop at cost, and it is only fair to say that in California and Connecticut and so far in Michigan, where buildings have been properly arranged and the institution run with competent management, this system has been a success.

In conclusion I will say that above all things, pity is not what blind people need or want. A kind-hearted lady once said to me: "I wouldn't think of risking letting you tune my piano, but I just want you to know that you have my heart's sympathy." And I lost her heart's sympathy for a lifetime by asking her to take a day off some time and figure how many bushels of potatoes and how many tons of coal her pity would buy. A chance to learn and earn is what the blind of America ask and expect; and asking less, could the public consider them worthy the name of self-respecting American citizens?

THE WISCONSIN WORKSHOP FOR THE BLIND.

OSCAR KUSTERMAN, SUPERINTENDENT, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

We who are so fortunate to possess and enjoy unimpaired the functions of our senses, can scarcely form an idea of what enjoyment and happiness people bereft of one or more senses are denied.

The blind, handicapped and outclassed by his more fortunate fellow, has nevertheless the same right to live. Unable of his own resources to cope effectively with the needs of life, his more fortunate brother has come to his assistance, so that today there is not one civilized country that does not, at least in some measure, lend its aid towards the welfare of the blind.

We find the first institutions for the blind in the old country towards the close of the seventeenth century. Before that time the word blind had been synonymous almost with beggar or public charge. France, England and Germany were the first of the European countries to erect and maintain public institutions of this kind. There is scarcely a state in our country or Europe which today can not lay claim to at least one institution or school for the blind. Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, have each as many as two or three public and private schools and workshops.

It is interesting to recount some of the many occupations the blind man calls his own. The schools for the blind of the states in most cases provide for the artistic, scientific and industrial training of its pupils, providing they enter at an early age. For those, indeed, who have the misfortune to become blind in the prime of life it becomes physically impossible and impractical to receive this same instruction and education, so that their only remedy left is to be instructed in some trade or handicraft.

Persons who have been most successful in dealing with the blind have a right to complain of the blindness of those that can see. The busy and generous, but nevertheless thoughtless, public gives a donation to the blind or builds a comfortable "asylum" and then rests with a self-imposed assurance of having done its duty. The fact is that the public has not yet arrived at an intelligent understanding of the problem and the education of the sightless must begin with the education of the public.

New York and Massachusetts have recently taken the initiative in this direction by appointing commissions to gather statistics and take a census of all blind residents, in order to formulate a mode of providing for their blind citizens.

Individually the endowment of a magazine of great merit by Mrs. Ziegler of Brooklyn, has given a marked impetus to educational facilities among blind men. This endowment enables any blind person capable of reading the point system, to receive, without cost, a monthly magazine of high merit. This is at least one sensible and charitable undertaking in our commercially maddened world, and if the precedent so established would be followed by a few other donors, blindness would be robbed of half its terrors. Other countries whose citizens are less generous than ours have far outstripped us in the duty we owe the sightless.

Every blind person must be taught to do something that will develop his own peculiar faculties. This becomes necessary no less for political than for mental and moral reasons. If we treat the blind as if they were paupers or idiots, we can expect no more than we do from such people. There are those among the blind adults who, in spite of the excellent work done at the blind schools, can not receive the necessary education to follow a profession or to make them musicians or piano tuners. This number includes those who have been deprived of their sight at an advanced age, when owing to their maturity it becomes impossible to instruct them in all the branches taught at these schools.

For such as these our state has made other practical provisions. In his annual message of 1903, the governor of Wisconsin advocated legislation for the benefit of the blind. The legislature, convinced of the urgent necessity for such measures, promptly authorized the renting of suitable quarters, with all furnishings and equipment, to begin a workshop for the blind in Wisconsin.

I can assure you it was no easy task to decide on the proper industry. The reports from other state workshops for the blind showed that these institutions had not yet passed the experimental stage, for none of them could in their annual statements admit a success.

Our own ventures during the first few months led us successively to the manufacture of clothes, shoes and mattresses, and the caning of chairs. Convinced of the impracticability of these industries after a reasonable trial, we finally decided on the willow ware industry.

Success proved certain from the outset. Under the tutelage of able seeing overseers goods that compared favorably with the best ware in the market were ready for sale after the first three months.

The next difficulty was the disposal of our fast accumulating

stock. Circulars were sent to a large number of persons, calling attention to our wares. This method not bringing the results hoped for, we applied to the trade by sending samples and catalogues, with a price list that competed favorably with all other large manufacturers in our line. Orders now begun to come in daily, the excellence of our goods was soon acknowledged, and today, when the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind has attained the reputation for making the best goods in the country, orders come in with such regularity that we are unable to fill all within the time asked for. Siegel, Cooper & Co., Marshall Field & Co., Gimbel Bros., and many other large houses throughout the entire country are asking us to rush their orders. It is not to help the blind that we receive these orders, but to satisfy the demand from their customers for this class of well-made goods.

Beginning with four workmen in December, 1903, our shop now employs about thirty, and it is a pleasure to see how these men enjoy their work, how happy they are to be able to earn their living and at the same time pass away the idle hours of the day. They are not depending on charity nor upon their relatives.

At first only Milwaukee blind were employed, but when in 1905, the legislature authorized the State Board of Control to pay board and lodging for any blind man learning the trade at our shop, a sum not to exceed $75 per annum, the blind from outside of Milwaukee applied for work at our institution.

The earnings of our men range from $4 to $16 per week, and in no case, except when learning the trade, do they receive more than the difference between the price of the material and the selling price of the baskets.

These earnings will be materially increased after we are able to furnish all the willow from our state institutions farms, instead of importing it from Europe, as we have been obliged to do, not being able to purchase a sufficient quantity in our own country.

I do not hesitate to say that every blind man will then be able, not only to support himself, but also lay aside some savings annually.

Not figuring the outlay of money advanced for working capital, which remains the state's property, the cost of running the shop, including incidental expenses, last year was $3,376.37. This does not include the rent, however, which item when figuring the per capita of any other institution is never taken into consideration.

Taking an average of twenty-five workmen, the per capita figured at $135. With rent ($1,008 per annum) included, the per capita would be $175.

This amount would hardly support these men in almshouses, especially when it is considered that several are supporting families.

We have in our state about 1,500 blind people, perhaps 500 women and 1,000 men. Taking the ratio in other states, there must be about 150 male adults, who do not follow any given profession, that are willing to work at some trade if the opportunity is given them.

With this number in our state there is not the least doubt in my mind but that all of 100 men will be employed in our workshop within a few years.

The expense of running the shop would not be materially increased by a much larger number of workmen.

I believe that the time will come when the per capita will be greatly diminished, in all probability to about $75, which, aside of the advantage to these unfortunates, will be an actual saving to the state.

When the workshop was started, a store 22 by 90 feet was sufficient for the number of workmen then employed. A year later another store of the same dimensions had to be added. Again crowded and needing storage room, two dwelling houses in the rear of the stores were acquired, the total rent being $1,008 per year. Every foot of the present quarters is now occupied by workmen or goods and soon more room must be provided. Goods must be handled five and six times on acount of scarcity of room.

If it is the intention of the state to continue in its admirable policy of caring for the blind, the time has now arrived when it is possible to make this institution a lasting monument to the wisdom of our legislators and a permanent source of advantage to the blind of our state. New quarters will in a short time become absolutely necessary and the state, I think, should erect its own building.

During the first year we paid to the workmen $1,253.47; in the ensuing year, 1906, $4,423.57 was paid to them. A total of $9,211.50 was paid to the workmen during the three years, while this year alone we will pay over $6,000 in wages to our workmen.

The sales of goods for the three years amounted to $14,382.62. This year our sales amount to from $1,200 to $1,400 per month, so

that figured approximately we will this year sell over $14,000 of goods—as much as we sold during the first three years.

Nine thousand six hundred and nine doll buggies and 19,538 baskets and other pieces of willow ware were manufactured during the period of three years from 1903 to 1906. This year alone we will manufacture over 15,000 baskets.

It may be of interest to you to know what they are doing in other states. The State of Illinois authorized its counties to pay to their blind adults $150 cash per year and runs a workshop and home, costing an additional $72,600 for one year. The per capita is about $490 per inmate.

The State of Connecticut teaches trades at an industrial home, allowing to each blind person for three years, while learning the trade, $300 per year. After leaving the trade school $200 are allowed to each one for the purchase of material and tools.

The State of Michigan appropriated $85,000 for the building and equipment of a workshop and home and $25,000 for the annual current expenses. The expenditures for the year 1905 were $96,071 and for the year 1906, $45,298.71.

The State of Pennsylvania yearly appropriates $17,500 for the Philadelphia Workshop for the Blind, to which sum the city of Philadelphia adds an additional $5,000. Their deficit for two years amounted to $47,930.07, an annual deficit of $230.78 for each blind person.

The city of Cleveland pays each adult blind $150 a year.

The city of New York pays every indigent blind resident $50 a year, about $75,000 in all.

The State of California appropriated $65,000 to build an industrial home for the blind at Oakland.

That other states are studying our workshop with an idea of patterning after it, is seen from a late report of the Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Adult Blind appointed by the legislature of Massachusetts, in which I find the following:

"The manager of the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind has scored a great success in his two years experiment with a new industry, willow work, hitherto almost entirely unknown by the schools and industrial homes for the blind in the United States. All things considered, it seems to us that the manufacture of willow ware is likelier to prove remunerative in workshops for the blind than any of the conventional industries now in vogue. The

methods and results of the experiment in Milwaukee repay careful study, and seem full of promise."

The education and instruction of the blind has become more and more a study during past years. Legislators and philanthropists have given their attention and material assistance. With such aid assured, workshops and schools for the blind under prudent management and businesslike disposition of every requirement, the welfare and happiness of the blind must be and will be a certainty in the future. "Independence Through Industry," the motto of our workshop for the blind, would then be significant in every respect of its true meaning.

RELATION OF INDUSTRIAL TRADES TO THE STATE SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND.

GEORGE S. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

The state's interest in the blind lies chiefly in its effort to prevent blindness, to educate those who are of proper age, and to strengthen those of mature years, in order that they may be useful factors in its citizenship. In the first case there has been done much already. It is only necessary to notice the many causes of blindness in other countries to see what has already been done here to guard the eyesight of children and of the ignorant and thoughtless. In Egypt and some of the adjacent countries, nine-tenths of the blindness arises from superstitition. There is a small fly which often troubles the eyes of infants and there is the belief that each fly contains the soul of an Arab, and few fathers or mothers will remove these flies from the child's eyes. Many times they collect in such numbers as to cause the loss of sight. If these parents could be taught that the eyes should be kept clean and protected from flies and other irritants, at least two-thirds of the blindness would be prevented. There are no such extreme cases here and the governments of the states have done much to protect the eyesight from superstition, from ignorance and vice, but much more may yet be done in compelling better care of the eye at birth, in guarding the sight of the children in their sports and in the school rooms, and in protecting the people from many doctors who have really little knowledge of the delicacy of the organ of vision.

Not much has yet been accomplished to prevent hereditary blindness. No doubt there will soon be something done to prevent the procreation of children by parents whose bodies are diseased because of their criminal life and whose children are almost certain to be defective. This phase of the problem, however, lies outside the province of this paper and would not have been mentioned but for the fact that it makes the school work much more difficult.

How far it may be necessary to supplement the earnings of the blind and the best method to do this is a problem of economics and not of school work. Whether the states shall establish adult training schools, organize workshops, support homes, maintain central bureaus of supervision or adopt a pension system is not a school problem and must be left to those who are working to improve the condition of the adult blind.

Our study is of the blind of school age and of the work of the state schools. No doubt they may do much to bring about such action by the legislatures and to educate the people to such extent that much blindness may be prevented. The schools ought also to follow their graduates and measure the thoroughness of their work by the success these have made in the affairs of life. But whatever is done in this is incidental and not primary to the purposes of the schools. They are to take those who are blind of school age, and give such training and education as is best for their physical, mental and moral development, with the end in view that they may become useful elements of citizenship. All schools will have this in view, although there may not be general agreement upon method and the emphasis to be placed upon certain lines of school work. Just what time shall be given to literary education, to music, to physical training and to industrial occupations; how long pupils are to be permitted to remain in school, and what the age limits, are questions upon which there is as yet no general agreement. In Great Britain the school age is five to sixteen; in the United States it is generally from six or eight to twenty-one. In Great Britain the industrial education generally follows the school work proper, while in the United States it is generally co-ordinate. The Glasgow institution, one of the largest and best of its kind, thus advertises its purpose:

1. To give education, technical and industrial training to the juvenile blind and to provide a home for blind children and blind women.

2. To teach trades and provide employment for adult blind men and blind women.

3. To supplement their earnings, to give holiday grants, to supply clothing and to aid them in sickness and old age.

Thus this institution combines the purposes of education and of support. The upper age limit of the school department is sixteen and this is the lower of the industrial. Below sixteen they are pupils and the principal purpose is educational; above sixteen they are apprentices or laborers and the principal object is to earn money. The other institutions in Great Britain and on the Continent, with a few exceptions, are similar. The school work is elementary and hurried, but the industrial training is carefully planned and most thorough. Life there is hard, even the sighted have few opportunities and it is scarcely possible for a blind man to make a living unaided.

In the United States the economic condition will permit less emphasis on the industrial training and extend the period of school studies. Yet here, there is no general agreement. In the South many of the schools give more time to industrial training than those of the North. Many of the latter aim to make the industrial department incidental to education and to sustain only those industries that are in their nature educational, while many of the former make the industrial department co-ordinate and select those trades that will make the pupils immediately self-supporting. This difference in purpose will, of course, to a considerable extent vary the time assigned to the trades and in some cases will change the nature of the work.

The educational value of trades will not always be proportional to their value in moneymaking. Many that have always been regarded as the best for the blind in the way of supporting them can have little influence in school development. Broommaking, chair-caning, brushmaking, rope and twinemaking, weaving and many others soon exhaust their value as educational factors. It does not take long to gain the mastery of the combinations and thereafter the only question is one of speed, which is of little force in developing the brain. Others are semi-educational. Knitting, crocheting, sewing, willow work, raffia work, bead work, wire work and many others will permit a constant variation and will therefore be of much greater value as school work. Cooking, sloyd, piano tuning, massage, and many others because of their nature, or because of the

associations which they compel are of much greater correlative value to the purely literary work. The list would be very differently arranged in order to show the relation as moneymaking occupations. Broommaking placed in this list as one of the lowest, has been universally regarded in the United States as an excellent trade for a blind man of average capacity. Sloyd will do little to give an income to a blind man, but is one of the best industrial occupations for a blind school.

What should be the policy of the schools? Shall the trades be selected for the purpose of giving a blind graduate an income or shall they be selected to give him a strong and active body, a well-disciplined mind and a moral nature that will readily respond to the best that is in him? Shall the end of his education be directed to immediate results in money returns, or shall he be given physical, mental and moral power? I know full well the value of money to the blind, but the quickest returns are not always the most generous.

If we incline to the money view, what trades will be taught in the blind schools? All have been tried and while in a few cases local advantages in the way of cheap raw materials may have given temporary success, none of the best moneymaking trades have been so successful as to give them a permanent place in the blind schools. Piano-tuning will give ample returns to the conscientious and talented blind tuner, and the demand for these is constantly increasing. Only a small per cent., however, of the blind pupils can be expert tuners. Broommaking and chaircaning were excellent occupations and any blind person of medium ability can become proficient, but the changed conditions because of machinery have so lowered the value of the product that it is doubtful if a blind man can now make a respectable living from either. The same is true of mattress making, of weaving, of boxmaking, brushmaking, rope-making, of knitting, of sewing and almost the entire list. I doubt if an occupation can be named where the product depends upon manual skill alone where a blind graduate has any assurance that he can remain for any length of time independent. Efforts have been made to supply the raw material at the lowest possible cost to the blind worker or to establish employment institutions where the cost of production is minimized, but in every case these institutions were compelled to return the answer to the question of the New York Commission, that they were not self-supporting. If institu-

tions can not make collective work under skillful management profitable, what can a blind man do individually to sustain himself? Should the schools be weighted down with trades, worthless educationally, that give little promise of reasonable returns in the future? There has been a constant cry to make the institution work more concrete and more extended, and most of the schools have responded but have failed to materially increase the income of the blind graduate. The truth seems to be that the blind are at a disadvantage in manual work, and that they can not compete successfully with the seeing.

When we conclude that the purely manual trades are of local value only, that even these are becoming less remunerative because of machinery, that to a great extent the future must solve the problem of the occupation to give best returns to manual effort, is it not imperative that the schools shall adhere to the purpose of giving a liberal general education and that such trades shall be selected as will afford the best educational development or afford the best opportunities for relaxation? Ought not the blind schools be kept in line with the seeing, in following this fundamental purpose? This will insist upon the best physical, mental and moral development possible. No one of these should be neglected. When the graduate is thoroughly trained in all these he will have a power of adaptation to the peculiar conditions of his environment that will do much to render his labors satisfactory. Many a blind man can make a good living at selling brooms who can not possibly do so at making them. The blind must rely more on mental and moral force than upon handicraft. The outlook is therefore much brighter when the result depends upon mental efficiency rather than cunning in craft. In thinking, the blind person is scarcely at a disadvantage. The material is unquestionably harder to secure but when once gained is held with a tenacity of memory which makes amends for the labor of acquisition. So where mental activity is directed to secure financial returns the trained and educated blind man will be at no disadvantage in that which depends upon purely mental effort. If he can even by enormous toil gain a sound and well-trained body, a well-stored and educated mind and a moral capacity for right doing, he can reasonably hope to succeed. It will take all these, however. A body weakened by sloth or dissipation, an intellect infeebled by ignorance and disease and a conscience seared by immoral habits and thoughts will indubitably lead to dis-

appointment and failure. The blind above all can not afford to lose the opportunity of a sound and complete education. To none other is it of such portent, and to none other is its loss such a forecast of evil.

The blind school, then, should endeavor to give a most liberal and thorough education in order that the powers of adaptability of its graduate should be as perfect as possible. He will then be able to meet the changing conditions of his environment and not become paralyzed at the first disappointment. It requires long years of constant effort to win success under the most favorable conditions. But according to Principal Waite of the New York School, "Education provides the only means by which our young blind people can acquire self-respect, social recognition and vocational independence."

The first step in the education of the blind is in the gymnasium. This training must precede and remain co-ordinate with all other. It is the basis of all industrial, intellectual and moral education. Unfortunately it is too often neglected. Few persons have their muscles trained to complete and extended use. The human body has a capacity of which few persons are aware. The physical training teacher must take in consideration the temperament, inclination and heredity of each pupil. When his work is well done the basis is laid for other training. He can not do it all at once. It is a changing and a continuous process. Digestion, breathing, bathing, muscular and nervous tension are all necessary and proper fields for the work of the director of the gymnasium. A sound body alone can furnish the necessary stimuli for brain activity.

Manual training should be given primarily and principally to supplement and build upon the work of the gymnasium. Properly directed it gives additional dexterity and strength to the fingers and limbs and tone to the whole body. Some sort of creative industrial relaxation is absolutely necessary to every student. Play alone is not sufficient. Neither music nor literary studies can be pursued with any great degree of success without physical training and industrial activity. The student who attempts only intellectual exertion will soon become pale, dyspeptic and morbid. His mind will become sluggish and incapable of any close or extended exertion. The best authority in America has the following to say in regard to the value of sloyd as a factor in the training of the blind: "It stimulates thought and action, and through the use of

various tools gives general dexterity and skill of organism to be utilized in life. It evolves the natural capacity for creative work, trains the hand to execute this and offers an excellent opportunity for physical exercise with purpose. It encourages the use of both the left and right sides of the body and corrects bad habits in standing and sitting. It improves the physical health and poise and cultivates the fine sense of touch and the muscles of the arm and chest and the back. It has justly been characterized as one of the best tonics of the nervous system. Moreover, it strengthens the will and has a direct influence upon the formation of the intellectual fibre. It engenders habits of observation, industry, accuracy, self-control, neatness, self-reliance, independence, originality and truthfulness. It conveys an idea of form and inspires an appreciation of beauty and symmetry. Finally, it instills a love of labor and begets power of brain and a knowledge of the difference between reality and conjecture—exactitude and ambiguity." What has been said of sloyd may be said of many other lines of industrial training where the conditions are such as to afford pure air; the necessary variety of muscular application and the use of the brain in developing creative ideals. The secondary purpose of sustaining the shop should be to afford a trade whereby the blind pupil may have an occupation to contribute to his support. This is purely utilitarian and should be only incidental to the purposes of the institution.

The literary education should follow closely that of the general public school system. There is nothing that properly belongs to the seeing schools that may not be profitably incorporated in the blind except where color is the determining factor. The same principles of pedagogy, too, will necessarily prevail. It is only in apparatus, artifice and emphasis that the blind school differs from the seeing. Perhaps slower progress is made at first; more individual work is necessary; experience is slower and somewhat narrower, but the ground once gained is more tenaciously held. The blind should be given as far as possible the experience of the seeing. They should be thrown as constantly as possible with sighted persons. Daily contact with healthy life is necessary in the street, in the fields, in the trades and in travel. Every possible opportunity should be embraced to widen their experience. No school for the blind should be diverted from these fundamental requirements. Simultaneously and with the co-ordination, co-operation and emphasis necessary to the changing conditions and development of the pupils regular

work should be done in physical, manual and literary education. The purpose should be to secure as much physical, intellectual and moral growth as possible—to give power, and, incidentally, to turn this power towards the best opening for independent, useful and self-reliant citizenship.

DISCUSSION ON EDUCATION OF AND EMPLOYMENT FOR THE BLIND.

MR. OSCAR KUSTERMANN—I have a letter that Miss Helen Kellar sent me three weeks ago. She says:

"My Dear Mr. Kustermann—I was indeed pleased with the baskets sent me. They are strong, durable and beautifully even, quite satisfactory to my exacting finger tips. But owing to illness in the family I have not been able to attend to the courtesies of life until now. So I hope you will accept kindly my tardy thanks. I have read with encouragement of the progress that the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind has made. It is surely helping to hasten the day when every blind man and woman in America shall have opportunity to win independence through industry. I mentioned willow work in an article that I have just written on industrial training for the sightless, and I suggested that willow groves be planted on lands of the institutions for the blind. I am glad Mr. Allen has been appointed director of the Perkins Institution. I think that will mean much for the blind in this part of the country. Wishing you all success in your work, I am, sincerely yours, Helen Kellar, Wrentham, Massachusetts. February 19th. P. S. If there are any published reports of your work will you kindly send me a copy? It is helpful to me to read good news of what the blind achieve. H. K."

MR. J. W. JONES, Ohio—The paper of Mr. Hamilton is the most pointed and convincing paper that I have heard. He speaks what he feels and what he knows and as one having authority. His ideas are so well exemplified in the work of the home at Milwaukee, according to the paper which followed, that the most careful attention should be given to what he says by all superintendents of schools for the blind. I am a superintendent of a deaf school and I could not take the initiative in setting forth those ideas to the legislature because the superintendents of the blind schools would naturally wonder if I had not enough to do to attend to my own business. Dr. Rogers is the superintendent of a feeble-minded school, and he can not take the initiative for the same reason. I feel, though, that if the superintendents of the blind schools throughout the United States could be made to feel what the superintendents here must feel after hearing this paper, and then indicate that feeling to the members of the legislatures of the various states, there would be working schools established for the blind people all over the United States.

I remember, however, that Ohio had a working school for the blind at one time and the report to the governor of the State showed that it cost more to maintain the people who were engaged in that institution than it

would to have boarded them at the best hotel in the city of Columbus, according to the newspaper reports. If this were true, I dare say it was because there was no active living honest spirit behind it. It is of the greatest importance that these blind people be given an opportunity to earn their living, entirely, if possible; if not, as far as it is possible for them to do so, and the little money required should not be considered. If the matter were presented to the legislature as Mr. Hamilton presented it, our legislatures would be only too glad to give as much money as is wanted to carry on this work.

JAMES J. DOW, Faribault School for the Blind—It is not for want of sympathy or interest that these things that are now being talked of were not done long ago, but simply because nobody knew or could find out what to do. Thirty-one years ago our dear friend, Mr. Hall, who has now passed away, made very much the same sort of a talk as we have heard this morning. I visited his institution in Philadelphia. From that time to this I have watched all such institutions as these with a great deal of interest. But Mr. Hall's institution is still in existence, and it has not set the pace for other institutions. It is not because we have not wanted to do, and we have not known that some things could be done, but that the results have not seemed to indicate that these lines were successful. The State of Minnesota is doing two things for the adult blind that have not been referred to in any of the reports given here. First, it is furnishing books from its library for all blind people in the State who desire them, and an effort is being made to secure an interest in such reading. I read from a circular that has been sent over the State and sent to anyone who may desire it:

> "Any responsible blind person living in this State will be permitted to draw books in raised print from the library of this school under the regulations herewith given. They may be retained for one month from the date of issue. At the expiration of this time, if it is desired, it may be retained another month. It is the intention of the library to keep on hand books for the blind published in the New York Point print by the American Printing House for the blind at Louisville, Kentucky. Selections can be made from the catalogue of that house. When properly directed these books can be mailed and returned to or from any postoffice in the State free of charge."

Blind persons can also be taught to read by correspondence, and so be enabled to make use of the library.

Second, we shall inaugurate in a day or two a summer school for blind men, giving the blind men an opportunity to learn such things as we are able to teach them in the summer season. There are reasons which all who are connected with the work for the blind know, why such men should not be received into the ordinary school for the blind, but it is possible to receive them during this vacation period. I read briefly from this circular:

> "A summer school for a limited number of blind men will be maintained at this institution for a period of ten weeks during the present season. Applicants must be in such condition of health and strength as to be able to utilize the time profitably, and those will be given the preference who have lost sight comparatively recently. All

> the industrial facilities of the school will be available for the pupils, and they will be expected to put in as full hours as their physical condition will warrant. Instruction and training will be given in broom making, rug and carpet weaving, hammock and fly-net weaving, rattan basket making, cabinet work, and the use of carpenters' tools, and minor industrial work. There will also be instruction in reading and writing by touch, in the methods of retention of the power to write previously possessed, and in the use of the typewriter. Attention will also be given to instruction in the best ways of acquiring independence of action and of performing the ordinary personal and social functions of life."

I will read, also, a few lines from a paper which I presented last year at the National American Association of Instructors of the Blind on this subject:

Certain very obvious advantages of such a scheme as I have just referred to for aid to blind men will readily appear. The school plant with its equipment for training and labor is idle during the vacation period and can be utilized with no additional expense. The arrangements for housing and caring for the adult inmates are at hand, with no additional cost. The only extra cost is for the additional teaching force required during the summer school period and for the additional food and domestic service. Evidently no such amount of benefit can be bestowed with so small an outlay of money as in the method proposed.

Mr. Hamilton—I do not think anyone who is acquainted with Mr. Dow and his interest in the blind, doubts that he would do anything for them which will better their condition, but I will say that superintendents of the best schools in America have gone before legislatures and told them there was absolutely no excuse for any industrial movement in behalf of the blind, and their word has been taken, because it was supposed they were in position to know what the blind could do. It was for this reason that I have been particularly interested in securing a consideration of the industrial work for the blind before this assembly, because that will give it a standing, and will head off just such superintendents from doing what they have done before when appearing before our legislatures with these claims. Now I want to say that the question of what blind people can do best, at the least cost to the State, has not been settled. I believe, however, one of the things they can do best with the least expense and with the least outlay, is cobbling. It pays well, and it does not cost much to start up in the business. I know people who have made two or three dollars a day regularly, simply repairing and making shoes. It is something that people can start with small capital, thirty or forty dollars; the work is brought to them and taken away, and it can be sent to their homes, and of course that is a great advantage. I believe it is one of the most practical things that can be taught them, and is one of those that has been taught the least. Blind people can make tables and cabinet desks, and lots of things of that kind, but they can't make them with profit. The thing we want, as Mr. Kustermann says, is practical, industrial work for the blind the more profitable to the individual and the less expensive to the State, the better.

Dr. James J. Dow—The question of industrial education is just now a burning one. Throughout the country we have our fevers, and then our periods of relaxation. Just now we have an industrial fever on, all through the country. I have been through several of these in my experience. There have been times when everything was to be done by the hand, and there have been times when nothing could be done by the hand. If one would know the more sanguine phases of this matter he can take up some of our current papers like the Outlook for the Blind, and read some of the articles by Helen Kellar and others, to get an idea of what is expected; or, if one would look to the other side, he has only to look back to one of the reports, we will say, of our late departed friend, Mr. Anagnos, who some years ago expressed his utmost skepticism as to the value of industrial training as an earning occupation. I think that probably one side is altogether too sanguine, and it is quite possible that those who are so skeptical as to the value of industrial training for the blind, are also extreme in their ideas. At any rate, in the school under my charge, we have proceeded upon the hypothesis that some might be benefited from the earning standpoint by industrial training. That all might, at any rate, be benefited somewhat in the power to do certain things whether they were able to use that power in the way of earning or not. So, then, I think that the question as to whether we shall have development occupation, or earning occupation, in an institution may be solved by saying that we should have both. We should have sloyd, the immediate results of which are not large in the way of earning money. I have a beautiful library table that a blind boy made; a cabinet drop desk that a totally blind boy made, but in each of those cases months were spent making them. Neither boy could make a living making tables or desks, but each could make a table and could make a desk, and it was good for him to be able to do so. So, too, some boys can make good brooms. But they will not probably make a living making brooms. There is a bare possibility that a man may make a living making brooms. I think the likelihood is small, but as was suggested by the reader, many a man who can not make a living making brooms, from the fact that he has learned to make nice brooms, can go into the broom market and buy and sell brooms. I could point you to a man who started in this way, trying to make brooms for a living, and he could not make it go, and he went to handling brooms. He went from house to house in Minneapolis and St. Paul and he established a paying business connection. Later he got into other business in the city here and he is now well off. So then it is not all loss trying to train boys, and girls, too, for that matter, in things that they are not absolutely going to use themselves during life. As has just been stated, people come into the institution and see blind people and see the many things that they can do, and get a wrong idea because, while the pupils can do these many things, they get the idea that they can do anything and everything of that kind. I get letters from people asking me if so and so can not come and in a few months learn to do something that will put him on his feet and enable him to make a living. The thing most lacking in the blind, as it is with people who can see, is business ability. The man or the boy who has business ability will get

on in the world, and the boy that has not got it is going to have hard work to get on in the world. The man who begs on the streets is the man who has not business ability. The thing to do, then, is to develop as far as possible the latent ability and possibilities of the mind. If you can develop a man's mind there is some chance that he will find a way somewhere to do something, and if the boy or the man or the girl is not ashamed to do anything that comes to hand, no matter what it is (and that should be a part of the business of the institution, to teach them not to be ashamed of anything but begging), then there is a chance. The blind person who is going to get on in the world must be developed intellectually. He must learn the practical arts so far as possible. There is a good deal of the individual element that can not be ignored and that can not be created, but without intellectual development there is not likely to be self-support. Further, I think that we have a right to say that the blind pupil, regardless of possibilities of earning powers and the development of them, has the right to the development of the intellectual life and the spiritual life. There was a time when the common schools were said to exist for the good of the State. We have come in the west to the idea that schools are for the good of the scholar, for the development of life, and as of old one came to man that he might have life and might have it more abundantly, so we are looking that our pupils shall have life and shall have it more abundantly—that they shall have intellectual life, that they shall have spiritual life, and this is the defense of the existence of our institutions.

Mr. Hamilton—There is one exception I want to take to anything that has been said this morning. I enjoyed Mr. Wilson's paper very much and Mr. Tate's talk very much. I believe they are all on the right track. There is one thing, though, I think they have lost sight of. A large percentage of blind people come from poor families, and are intellectually below par. Now these are not the ones you hear of so much. A great many of the pupils in our schools for the blind are intellectually and physically below par, and I believe it is a mistake to try to give these people the same sort of a general school education, including a high school education, which we give to boys and girls who come from our best families. In any family where there are five, six or seven boys and girls, they do not all go through the high school. It would be a mistake that they should have high school training. Now I believe it to be the fact if there has been a mistake made at all in educating blind children, that they have had too much education. They have been crowded too far in literary and musical pursuits to do them any good or to get results. If a child has gone through what corresponds to the eighth grade in our public schools and has not demonstrated that it has mental ability to go ahead and make a living in the professions, I believe it would be far better for the child, for the community, and far better for the child's family, to stop as far as the eighth grade, say, and then give them the training which can help them to be wholly or partially self-supporting.

Mr. George S. Wilson—I am one of those who firmly believe that any blind boy that has the right material in him will be able to be successful.

The outlook is much brighter where that boy can be trained to use his intellect rather than his hands. My paper considered the question from the school standpoint. That is, I did not consider those above twenty-one years of age. It has become general in the United States now, with the exception of a few schools, that the age shall be fixed at twenty-one years, and that the purpose of the school shall be educational. Where the pupil can be trained to use his intellect and his business ability, it opens up a much broader field for him than if he were to follow or take up an industrial trade. If we get into a rut and teach a certain trade in a certain way, without giving the boy the opportunity to adapt himself to the change wrought by machinery, which will take away his trade, then he is helpless, but a boy able to adjust himself to the conditions can readily work out his salvation because of his adaptability to circumstances. In regard to the statement that most of the blind children come from poor homes and are deficient, my observation of them has been that most of them do come from poor homes, but many are among the brightest pupils. The hope that I see for the blind pupil lies more largely in training his ability to go about in places and mix with other people, to know business relations and to adapt himself to the conditions in which he is thrown.

THE EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE DEAF.

JAMES H. TATE, SUPERINTENDENT SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, FARIBAULT, MINN.

The education and employment of the deaf is a subject about which our people know but little. If it were realized what a considerable per cent. of the population are deaf and, if the skill needed to educate the deaf were at all appreciated, the question would assume the importance it deserves.

The special census of the deaf taken in 1900, by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, not including our dependencies, showed a population of 80,287. We then numbered about 75,000,000. Upon the supposition that we have 90,000,000 people now, we have a deaf population of well-nigh 100,000. Of these perhaps 42,000 are totally, and 58,000 partially deaf.

There were, November 10, 1906, over 12,000 pupils under instruction in the schools of this country. In the fifty-eight state institutions there were 10,126 pupils, taught by 1,300 persons. In the fifty-seven day schools, 1,020 pupils were instructed by 138 teachers, and in the seventeen denominational schools there were 502 pupils, taught by 87 teachers. The whole number of deaf pupils who have

received instruction in this country is 53,028. There are 351 industrial teachers in these schools. All but 31 of these are engaged in the state institutions.

HISTORY.

Efforts to educate the deaf, by any of the nations, were spasmodic until within the last hundred years. From the earliest history we learn that a few deaf persons were taught in Spain as early as 1550. In England an attempt was made to teach articulate speech to a few deaf children in 1683.

The first school for the deaf was near Paris, in 1750. Scotland and Germany founded schools for the deaf in 1778. The first school for the deaf in this county was founded at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1817, by Dr. Thomas H. Gallaudet. The first effort to teach the deaf was made in Goochland county, Virginia, by Thomas Brainwood. It was thought that the Hartford school would supply the educational needs of the deaf in our country for all time.

SUPPORT OF THE SCHOOLS.

Almost every state has an institution for the education of the deaf. New York and Pennsylvania each have several. The 58 state schools are all supported in whole or part by the state. Illinois Michigan, Wisconsin and California have day schools in addition to their state institutions. Ohio had, but no longer supports them. In my judgment there are fatal weaknesses in the day school scheme.

METHODS.

It is usually admitted that for intelligence, patience and originality, educators of the deaf excel. Since necessity is the mother of invention, they claim no credit for possessing these winning virtues.

As success in this work depends so largely upon personal initiative, it is not strange that there are widely different theories as to the best method of accomplishing the task, at best, extremely difficult.

Speaking broadly there are three methods, known as the manual, the oral and the combined. The manual method includes the use of the sign language, finger spelling and writing. In the oral, speech and lip-reading aided by natural gestures are used as a means of imparting instruction. In the combined, some of the pupils are taught orally, occasionally aided in a measure by finger spelling and signs.

Other pupils in the same school are instructed wholly manually. In most of the combined schools the pupils are addressed in a body in the sign language and the pupils use signs and finger-spelling freely in their intercourse with each other. The use of signs in class-room is discouraged in classes taught manually.

Of the fifty-eight state schools only six are pure oral in method of instruction. The method used in the day schools, with one exception, is pure oral. The aim of these schools is to prepare the pupil for life.

INDUSTRIES.

Much emphasis is put upon manual training. As many as sixty-six trades are taught in the state institutions. In the day schools little or no industrial training is given. Owing to the limitations incident to deafness, the industrial education for the deaf is an imperative necessity.

EMPLOYMENT.

We now have come to the second division of our subject—The Employment of the Deaf. This must be treated briefly, also. It is true that after pupils leave school they often do not follow the trades learned. However, the training they have had enables them to adapt themselves to other employments.

We present the summary of the report made by the International Congress of the Deaf at the session held in St. Louis in 1904, in relation to the industrial status of the deaf.

1. "There are very few ordinary occupations in which the deaf can not or do not engage."
2. "Employers and foremen treat deaf workmen as they do the hearing workmen."
3. "Deafness is a hindrance to an extent, but is not such a formidable barrier to success as has been popularly supposed."
4. "The deaf workman usually has steady work. Those who have not, generally have themselves to blame."
5. "It is the almost unanimous opinion that rural pursuits are better for the deaf than factory work."
6. "The deaf invariably get the same wages for the same class of work, as the hearing."

The list of employments engaged in by the deaf after they have finished school is interesting, viz.: "Baking, Blacksmithing, Boilermaking, Bookbinding, Brickmaking, Bricklaying, Brushmaking, Butchering, Cabinet-making, Carpentry, Can-making, Cigar-making, Cobbling, Cooking. Dressmaking, Decoration, Electricity, Embroidery, Engineering, Farming, Fresco Painting, Gardening, Glass-blowing, Glove-making, Hatting, Harness-making, Market Gardening, Tailoring, Painting, Poultry Raising, Photography, Shoe Making, Tanning and Currying, Tinning, Varnishing, Wall Paper Hanging, and others."

"While the great majority are engaged as above, a number have risen above the ranks. This is especially true of those who have had the advantage of college training. More than two hundred of the deaf are teachers. Two are college professors. Twelve are or have been, principals of schools. A number are lawyers, one of whom has the distinction of practicing before the United States Supreme Court. Twelve have been ordained ministers of the gospel, one of whom received his degree from Oxford University, England. There are several successful architects. Others have taken high rank as painters and sculptors, their work having been admitted to Paris salon. One is a State botanist and his contributions to science have attracted national attention. A number have lucrative positions as assayers and chemists. A few are engaged in real estate and banking. A score are editors of papers connected with schools for the deaf, and about an equal number publish or edit papers of general circulation among the hearing. Quite a number are in business for themselves."

Suffice it to say, though, that with the intellectual, industrial and moral training given to these deaf children in the various state, day and private schools of this country, 132 in all, and by Gallaudet College at Washington, D. C., they are prepared for and do measure up as adults to the best type of citizenship.

THE BLIND-DEAF.

A PRACTICAL EXEMPLIFICATION BY DR. TATE.

The philanthropist, Mr. William Wade, has published in a monograph on the subject quite an amount of excellent data, and he has learned of fifty-five totally deaf and blind children in this country and Canada. These fifty-five were either born so or lost their hearing in early youth. There are thirty-four persons in this country and Canada totally deaf and blind, who lost their hearing after they reached maturity or were practically grown. There are twenty-three deaf-blind persons who are not necessarily totally deaf or totally blind, but practically so, in this country. It may be interesting to note that of the totally deaf-blind, fifty-five are girls or women, and thirty-four are boys or men.

Now this little girl (bringing forward little Vera) was brought to us in the School for the Deaf in Faribault only about four months ago. She had absolutely no knowledge of any words so far as being able to express them was concerned. She has gained about 350 words; about 300 of these are nouns, and the rest are verbs and a few adjectives. (She has found my glasses, and now she will want

to know just what they are. She says, "Put them away.") This little girl lost her sight at about four years of age, and she lost her hearing two years later, six years of age. She is very bright and affectionate, as you see, and a very attractive little girl. She is jolly in her temperament, and has a good time. The deaf children, especially the girls, take a great interest in her, and entertain her. Her occupation during business hours is making doll clothes. She can thread her needle and do all the work. She is very systematic in her make-up. The absence of the sense of sight and hearing and speech has seemed to increase her sense of smell, and that is, as in all such cases, very acute. In selecting the clothes, handkerchiefs, etc., that come from the wash for herself and teacher, if she can not identify an article by the texture and make-up, she will smell it and assign the article to its owner by her sense of smell, and she knows the individual by that same sense, too. She is very delicate about it, and she rarely ever makes a mistake. In spelling simple words she usually gets it from one handspelling by the teacher. I will illustrate that. "Vera, what is your name?" "What is this ribbon?" the teacher says. (Child walks around teacher.) She wanted to get an action for you when she walked around me. There was method in her madness. We teach verbs by using such words as walk, and she walked around her and came back, and said, "Vera, walked." (She is not doing quite as much business as she would like to do here. She is getting restless.) Her teacher is spelling a sentence to her now. She is always anxious to know a sign for a word. She knows the sign word is descriptive of what it means, and that helps her. Nearly all of us have sign names. My own happens to be Tate, and T put on the chin is my sign name. She will give you an illustration of the threading of a needle. She uses her tongue and places the eye of the needle and the point of her thread on her tongue after she compresses the point just like we would. She has threaded the needle since I have been talking, you notice. Now, if there are any questions the audience would like to ask we will be glad to answer them. (In answer to questions.)

She has learned 350 words in four months.

I don't know what Helen Kellar's record was, but this is a very unusual one.

From the start she is making, there seems to be no reason why

she should not make as distinguished an individual as Helen Keller or any deaf-blind person.

We have been very careful not to give her more than she could master very thoroughly, in order to prevent confusion.

A normal child hardly reaches this age before it learns many things.

She was born November 22, 1896.

We have not attempted to teach her to write. We shall, through the raised letters or the perforated system, sooner or later.

Mr. Wade has sent her a Braille machine, but she has not come to the point yet of using that. She can spell these 350 words and understand them. She is very eager to learn always. Ball was the first word taught her. Doll was the second.

Then she has a little Teddy bear. She learned that name third. She had learned about 300 nouns before she learned a verb at all.

Mr. Freeman—Some one has asked me to request you to tell me how you taught her the word ball.

Dr. Tate—I can describe that to you. Give her a ball and let her feel it. Ball, B-a-l-l (spelling the word on her hand.) She feels this word. The first day the attempt was made to teach her anything she got three words.

She speaks a word of two or three, just a few, but in a baby-like way. They are not well spoken. We propose in the course of time to teach her to speak and also to read the lips. She is absolutely deaf, but she sees men as trees walking; that is, she does not distinguish any one, but she has enough sight to see when a shadow comes between her vision and the bright light.

Mr. Jones—Is it a brain trouble or physical trouble that causes her condition?

Dr. Tate—I think there is no question about its being a physical defect. It is not a brain trouble at all.

Mr. Jones—Did she receive any education before she became deaf?

Dr. Tate—Well, she was with her good mother, who taught her many things in just such a way as a mother would teach little children, but she did not know the names of these things. She had no mental accomplishments whatever, but you see she is quite domestic and she must have learned quite a little in that way before she came to us.

DISCUSSION ON THE DEAF AND THE BLIND-DEAF.

DR. TATE—I noticed in the program that we are put down as defectives. It is true the deaf and blind are defectives; it is a physical matter, but they dislike that term very much. Even the Legislative Committee put us down as defectives. Ladies and gentlemen, who of us is not defective in some way—in a physical way—and who of us is not defective in a moral or intellectual way? Two individuals supposed to be equally intelligent will have a proposition put to them, the same arguments presented, and they will arrive at different conclusions. If that is not a mental defect, what is it? Now what we want is to be classed as the United States Government does. We want to be called a special class. We do not want to be stamped defectives. If this Conference hereafter in appointing their committee and in presenting the causes and work among the deaf and blind, call us a special class, we would be greatly pleased, and I rather think we are entitled to that, too. The rank and file of the population of this city looks upon this Convention as made up largely of cranks. They think we are daft on the various questions that we are discussing here. We are defective. Should we like for this city to announce that the Defective Convention of Charities and Corrections was to assemble in this place to discuss questions that interested them? I think not.

MR. JONES, Columbus, Ohio—We have in the Ohio Institution at present two pupils afflicted like the little girl who was just on the stage. Leslie Oren, who has done so well as to attract a great deal of attention, and John Porter Riley, a colored boy, who has likewise made a wonderful record. Each of these children has a special teacher. Leslie Oren for a number of years lived exclusively with his teacher, and she was his caretaker, his matron, his school teacher. She was everything to him. John Porter Riley has always had the association with the boys in the institution, a large number of them. Both of these children are very popular and have many friends. One of the chief characteristics of this class of children is the extreme affection which you saw illustrated in this beautiful and bright little girl a few moments ago. It appears to be their grateful expression of thankfulness for what has been done for them. I happened to be present a few minutes before the meeting was called to order and saw the little girl meet her teacher after an absence of three days, and the way she expressed her love was so beautiful it could not help bring tears to the eyes of the people who witnessed it. The little girl just exhibited has made wonderful progress and her teacher, Mr. Tate, and his school and her friends, should be proud of her. These children are not always bright. One was admitted to the Ohio school last fall. It was furnished a special teacher for six months, but not a sign of development was noted anywhere, and we were compelled to return it to the county from which it came, there to spend its remaining life in a county infirmary.

Going back to Leslie Oren. He was taught originally as this little girl and learned possibly as much in proportion to his age. He was only five years of age when he entered school, but he learned very rapidly and in

the first year was enabled to communicate with his teacher very intelligently. He now uses the typewriter so well that he has a speed of from forty to fifty words, and he delights to use it. He has mastered the Braille writer also, and when he communicates with his teacher in her absence, uses the typewriter and she answers in Braille. He has also learned to speak, being unable to utter anything of intelligent articulation when he entered school. He can now speak very well, so that any person can understand what he says. He does not read lips very well with his fingers, as Helen Kellar is said to do, but he reads some in that way. After an absence of four or five weeks from the institution he was brought back before I left, and he spoke, "Are you happy to see me?" so that any one could understand him. It is a great satisfaction to all people to see what a wonderful help can be rendered to these children that would otherwise be left in darkness and distress; and while it costs some eight hundred dollars a year to keep a private teacher for such a child, who would care for that when the results are known? Who would not willingly recommend and urge that so much money as is necessary be used to make these little souls human as they were intended to be? Such a lesson before an audience like this makes us all proud of our work and of our country.

DR. TATE—I want to request Mr. Jones to relate an incident which he related in Pittsburg last summer in relation to Leslie Oren, to demonstrate to this audience the degree of perfection in mental development that can be acquired by these deaf-blind children. It was in reference to his being interrupted in a letter and stopping in the middle of a word and going back the next day and taking up that last word.

MR. JONES—Mr. Tate refers to a time when Leslie was writing a letter. He was interrupted in the middle of a word and did not return to his work until the next day, when he struck the typewriter at the next letter, showing a mental strength and concentration that would likely be impossible with a hearing-seeing person. In connection with that there are several other things that show the growth of the mind of that class of children. Leslie was being taught the months in the order and at the same time he was being taught to write little journals each morning for the purpose of learning language. So he would write in his journal each day that he rose in the morning at five-thirty, dressed himself and washed, and with the others marched to the dining-room, where they ate their breakfast and marched out afterwards in a body. At the same time the teacher was teaching him the month of March, and so when the thirty-one days of March were gone the teacher told him that it was April now, another month, and that March would not return for twelve months, and so Leslie began his journal the next day: "We arose at five-thirty, washed and dressed and m-a-r—no, we Apriled into the dining room, ate our breakfast and Apriled out." Another incident that is interesting in connection with Leslie's life and shows much of his characteristics and his intelligence, too. He was in the habit for a long time of taking Sunday dinner with our own family, and at other times, too. We taught him he should always

wait for an invitation. One day he came in and one of the children asked him: "Who invited you?" He did not say anything. "Did Mr. Jones?" "No." "Did Mrs. Jones?" "No." "Did either one of the children?" "No." "Well, who invited you?" He waited just a moment, and then spelled out, "G-o-d." He was permitted, of course, to remain to dinner.

MR. BOWMAN—There is a class of children who can hear but can not talk. To what institution ought you to admit a child of that kind?

DR. TATE—When a child can hear but can not speak unless he has a cleft palate, or some other physical defect of that kind, the defect is a mental one. All such children ought to be assigned to an institution for the feeble-minded. I have attempted on several occasions upon the importunity of the parents to instruct such children, but without exception our efforts have failed and we have at last had to assign that child to the school for feeble-minded. The methods of teaching feeble-minded children reach such a child much better than is supposed by the rank and file of people.

It is hard to convince parents of such children that our methods are not adapted to them. Most of the schools for the deaf are designated schools for the deaf and dumb. That is the old title given them. Physicians, without much thought, usually tell the parents, "Now there is a school for the deaf and dumb at Faribault, and that is the place for your child." But the reasons given are adequate, I think, and the parents of such children are never convinced by any argument that may be brought to bear until I take them among our normal children, and they can usually discover at once that their child is not like these other children, and that argument is generally successful.

PRESIDENT BUTLER—Then you mean to send them to the school for feeble-minded for the purpose of keeping them there forever?

DR. TATE—Well, they can be instructed quite a little, but Dr. Rogers is authority on that proposition.

MR. FREEMAN—I would like to express my sympathy with the position taken by Mr. Tate in regard to calling the blind and the deaf defectives. I would like to go one step further. When he made that remark the query came to my mind why are these children being discussed in this Conference of Charities and Correction? Why are you not discussing the needs and the conditions of the high school pupil in the city of Faribault? I believe the time will come when the schools for the blind and the deaf will not be classed under the state charitable institutions. In my opinion, they don't belong there any more than the primary grade and the high school grades of our schools, and when they are taken out there will be an elevation in these schools and there will be a better disposition felt for them on the part of people than there is today. The very word "charitable" prejudices some people, and some mothers and some fathers are withholding their children from these schools just on account of that word charity. We have had in our school two of these doubly-afflicted children. There

was no progress made with one of them. The second was Helen Kubicek. She had been with us six years and made wonderful progress, and in all my examination of the history of these children I must confess that I never heard any such progress made, not even by Helen Kellar, as that made by this little girl this morning. Three hundred and fifty words in less than four months is to me astonishing, and I could hardly have believed it if Mr. Tate had not told us, and we have seen evidences of the brightness and the ability of the little girl that would prove she is capable of doing that kind of work. This little Kubicek girl was at our school and part of the time she was home on account of illness. She could spell and she used the Braille writer and the typewriter, and could speak a great many words. She could read what you could say by putting her fingers on the lips of her teacher. A few months ago a large body of the members of our legislature visited our school and were delighted and astonished at the progress the little girl had made. But one Friday evening she was in health; she was up and dressed and apparently bright, and the next Wednesday night she had gone across the river. It was a great loss to our school. It was, I don't know whether I am right in saying that, a blessing to her. We felt perhaps it was, because she had gone where she could see and where she could hear, but, oh, the loss to that school and the loss to the State of Illinois. Superintendent Jones tells us of $800 appropriated by the State of Ohio for a little boy there. Illinois had given $1,000 for the education of this little girl, but how much that means to the schools of Illinois. Here a teacher can take a child of silence and of night; shut up within herself, within the prison walls, a girl of such feeble capacity apparently, and yet make her do so much. What a lesson to the teachers of Illinois.

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Boston, Mass.—The defectives, with their teachers, may well be called conquerors. If we all are defectives why should that be a term of reproach? If all should be charitable to one another why should the word "charitable" be a word of reproach? It behooves us to hold these words to their meaning, rather than to separate ourselves one from another in whatever part of the field we labor. Last night we had a talk about the primary schools and high schools here on this platform, to our great advantage. I hope our conference will never become exclusive, but grow more and more inclusive.

As we read about the deaf and blind, it becomes clear that the child, early deaf, finds a tremendous barrier between himself and his kind. I am told that a teacher prepared for teaching any children, may teach the blind, but for the deaf a teacher must take two more years of special training. The speed of communication, even when the deaf have become skilled in reading, typewriting, and so on, is very much less than that of ordinary speech. The number of words a deaf child can receive is very much less than the normal child receives. No wonder that the students in our schools for social workers, when they are asked to read about the deaf, express their amazement at the wonders accomplished.

In Massachusetts the deaf-blind are taught in schools for the blind. I suppose, because the teaching of the deaf is altogether oral there. Dr.

Howe began his work with Laura Bridgman at the school for the blind, which takes pride in continuing it, but, as we have seen this morning, the necessary first teaching to reach the mind of the deaf-blind is like the finger alphabet of the deaf and entirely unlike either the oral method for the deaf or the early teaching of the blind.

Mrs. W. H. McDonald, Colorado—It has been my privilege to be one of the trustees of the Colorado School for the Deaf and Blind for the past twelve years. We have a very excellent school, and we are proud of it in its supervision by one of the best superintendents, I think, in the country, Superintendent W. R. Ardle. We have both the deaf and the blind. Now it has occurred to me to ask these gentlemen of experience if the deaf school is not a better place to educate the deaf-blind, inasmuch as they can have social intercourse with the deaf pupils, which, I suppose, they could not have in a blind school. I do not know that I ever thought of the deaf-blind being educated in a blind school before, for that reason. Of course, they have their teacher, but it seems to me they should have the companionship of the children as well. I would like to ask the opinion of some of our workers on that subject.

Mr. Freeman—A practical person would say you are right.

Mr. Jones—Speaking from an experience in the Ohio school, I think it is of the greatest importance to these deaf-blind that they have as many people to communicate with them as possible, and as their only method of communication is by finger spelling in the hand, and as the deaf children are experts in that, I think it is very important that they be thrown with that class of children and educated in a school for the deaf.

Mr. Fitzgibbon, Columbus, Indiana—While seeing this exhibit I felt what a great message a child like this is to a fortunate child and also to her teacher, and I wish we might carry it to the public schools. There is a genuine and honest cry of despair going up everywhere from public school teachers because of the problems that they meet with in what we call normal children. We have our dullards, our backward children, our children with whom teachers are not quite patient enough, and with whom they disagree very often, and if a child like this might be taken to our public educational meeting such as the State and District Teachers' Associations and the work of these children and their patient teachers exhibited, what a lesson of patience and perseverance it might inject into our public school work. One of the messages we need most of all, it seems to me, in public school work, is that message which will bring to the teacher a knowledge of the great results that may come through patience and perseverance and faith in the outcome of all children if work is properly and carefully done with them.

Mr. Freeman—It might be of interest to the gentleman to know that our Emma Kubicek was before the Illinois State Teachers' Association a year ago last September.

MR. HEYWARD, Nebraska—I find in examining our school that the great disadvantage under which it labors is the ignorance of the people concerning the work that they want to do. The very act of sending an unfortunate to partake of charity seems to grate upon the nerves of the parent so much that they won't do it. Two years ago our teachers wanted to get them before the people in the right way, and arranged a very nice entertainment. They went all over the State trying to educate the people in the way in which the blind were taught. Of course, having charge of a State institution, we were asked to entertain them during their visit to our town. We made great preparations to entertain the twenty-two blind people, expecting to devote a great deal of special attention to each, but we found them quite self-helpful and scarcely needing our escort. They went down to the town and came back, and had a little entertainment. I stood in amazement to see the happy condition they were in and what the State was doing. It was a revelation to me and to everybody. I don't think there is a blind person in the State of Nebraska who would object to going to that school now.

MR. HILL, New York—I am connected with the State Educational Department of New York, and I am impressed by the thought expressed here that the work in the schools, for the deaf and the blind, is essentially an educational question. If this is true it seems to me that there should be a close relationship between the public school system and the institutions.

In New York the responsibility for schools for the deaf and the blind is divided between the State Board of Charities and the State Educational Department. The province of each is not very clearly defined, and yet I think we work together and co-operate, but it seems to me that there ought to be a closer relationship than exists, and that schools for the deaf and schools for the blind should be represented in all educational meetings. They are to be represented in the National Educational meeting soon to be held, and they have been for a good many years, but nevertheless it is true that the State Educational Department of New York, and I suppose of other States, does not have the responsibility that it ought to have in regard to this line of work. Now in regard to methods of instruction. In institutions for the blind the general methods are not essentially different, but in the education of the deaf there certainly is a difference of method. At the present time in all the day schools of the country, the oral method is followed, while in many of the public institutions a combined method is followed. Now the educational proposition is, which of these is the best? That is the problem we are trying to solve in New York. Educational people are usually agreed to find out what is best in any particular case and are not so set in their particular method that they are not open to some information in regard to other methods. But in the case of the teachers of the deaf there are certain parties so convinced that their method is the only true one, that they will not even listen to the argument of the other side. I am glad to say that in New York the principals of the institutions for the deaf get together.

There are some things that they are not willing to discuss, but nevertheless, they are gradually getting together. I hope that the gentlemen who are connected with the institutions for the blind and the deaf will put themselves in touch with the general educational forces of the country. The people connected with the work of public instruction know very little about the education of the deaf. It would do them good to know much more. I think you ought occasionally write articles giving your ideas of education and have them published in the general educational magazines so that not only your own people will read them, but those interested in other lines of education also.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

In addition to the information which has now been received in practically the same form for several years, the committee has asked this year for information on public provision for the tubercular and for inebriates. The answers received are by no means complete, but they are classified and presented herewith. The compiled statements on outdoor relief and state conferences are similar to those which have been given for two years past. The statistical part of this report, which concerns the inmates of institutions, is gradually becoming more full. This year we have reports of greater or less accuracy and completeness from forty states, territories or provinces. But the committee is very far from being satisfied with the results attained. As has been frequently remarked in these proceedings, the amount of time and labor which would be required to secure even tolerably satisfactory reports from a majority of the states and territories is much more than the committee has ever been able to devote to the subject. Before we can publish really useful annual tables of statistics, some other than the plan which has hitherto prevailed must be put in operation for this committee.

The text of the state reports has been edited and somewhat condensed. From a few states, notably Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts and North Carolina, where there has been more than ordinary interest aroused in charities and correction during the past year, the reports are longer than usual. In each case the interest appears to justify the length of the report. The text of the reports is divided between Legislation, New Developments, Recognized Needs and General Remarks.

ARKANSAS.

PROF. J. H. REYNOLDS, FAYETTEVILLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The Reform School created two years ago will soon open.

Legislation.

The Legislature is now in session. A bill for an act to create a Board of Parole for penitentiary convicts is among the very few measures that are pending.

CALIFORNIA.

W. A. GATES, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The recent Legislature appropriated $800,000 for the rebuilding of the Insane Hospital at Agnew. Also appropriations for extensive additions to the Home for Feeble-Minded at Eldridge, including two pavilions for the care of epileptics in a separate colony, but under the management and as a part of the institution.

Legislation.

No new legislation affecting charities and correction was enacted by the last Legislature.

All proposed legislation died somewhere on the way.

COLORADO.

CLARENCE E. HAGAR, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The last Legislature passed a bill providing for the establishment of a "workshop for adult blind," which we consider of great importance, and which will be appreciated by the large number of blind throughout the state.

Legislation.

There were some fifteen bills passed the Sixteenth General Assembly in which the Board of Charities and Correction were interested, among them being:

A bill providing that convicts in the penitentiary may be allowed to work on roads, being allowed extra good time for same.

Civil service in the state institutions.

A uniform system of public accounting.

Authorizing the penitentiary, reformatory and boys' industrial school to make clothing for other state institutions.

A parole agent, appointed by the warden of the penitentiary and reformatory, to look after paroled prisoners.

Giving Board of Control actual expenses incurred as the only compensation to members.

Creating free employment bureaus, applicable to Denver and Pueblo.

To provide for employment of prisoners in county jails.

Establishing a detention home in Denver county.

Establishing juvenile courts in cities of over 100,000 inhabitants.

Establishing a workshop for the adult blind.

Requiring all hospitals to report to the State Board of Charities and Correction their alien insane, or alien indigents.

Needs.

Some general state supervision of tubercular hospitals and private institutions for the care of tubercular patients.

A more strict law regulating orphanages and lying-in hospitals, orphanages to prevent certain classes starting an orphan asylum (to make a living) and then soliciting money to maintain it, and lying-in hospitals to prevent certain crimes that are bound to exist where such institutions are not under state supervision.

CONNECTICUT.

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The only new institution opened during the year is the Greenwich Hospital, a hospital for general service in the town of that name, but work has been begun upon hospitals to be conducted under

Roman Catholic auspices in New Haven and in Waterbury. A fund of about $500,000 has also been secured for new buildings and for endowment of the present Waterbury Hospital.

The new buildings at the Norwich Hospital for the Insane, whose beginning under an appropriation of $420,000 from the state was mentioned in the last report, have been completed and furnish additional accommodations for 300 patients, besides kitchen, laundry and heating, lighting and power plant for an institution of 1,000 inmates. The chapel and amusement hall at the Hospital for the Insane at Middletown were destroyed by fire in June, 1906, but it is hoped to obtain an appropriation from the present Legislature to replace them.

The new building to accommodate 300 inmates at the House of the Good Shepherd in Hartford, was dedicated in August, 1906, but so far a comparatively small number, only, of girls and young women, have been committed to the institution by the courts. Plans are under consideration for the removal of the New Haven County Temporary Home for Children to a new location in the country, and for the construction of new buildings there.

Legislation.

The Connecticut Legislature is still in session, and at the time of writing most of the matters relating to charities and correction have not been reported upon. Another effort is being made, as two years ago, to secure the passage of amendments to the existing indeterminate sentence law so as to compel its reasonable application by the courts, but conservative interests are opposing it. The state reformatory commission, whose report two years ago was continued to the present Legislature, has appeared in favor of the project again and has given its opinion that the proposed reformatory might be started with an appropriation of $200,000, instead of the $400,000 asked for before. At the lower figure it is possible that the project may receive favorable consideration. A bill has been introduced to provide for the appointment of a committee to investigate the county jails, with a view to placing them under the control of a state commission on prisons.

An appropriation of $680,000 for the Norwich Hospital for the Insane and one of $175,000 for the Middletown Hospital for the Insane have been asked for to provide new buildings and other improvements. The commission appointed two years ago to investi-

gate the need of a special institution for epileptics has reported in favor of establishing such an institution on the colony plan, but the Legislature has not yet taken action on the matter.

A bill to reduce the age-limit from four to two years, over which children may be committed to the county temporary homes, was defeated.

A proposed act to provide for the appointment of a state purchasing agent to purchase all supplies for state and state-aided institutions was also rejected.

The commission appointed two years ago to investigate the subject of fees and salaries for public officials has reported in favor of placing many of them who are now on a fee basis, such as county sheriffs, on a salary basis instead. The Legislature has not yet taken action on the report.

A bill was introduced to provide that every blind male resident of the state who is able to work should be furnished work by the state at a shop established for that purpose under the direction of the Board of Education of the Blind, but was defeated.

Another bill was rejected whose purpose was to provide an annual pension of $100 for every blind resident of the state.

Needs.

The greatest needs of Connecticut at present in the way of correctional and charitable institutions are a state reformatory for young men and young women over 16 years of age, and an institution on the colony plan for epileptics.

DELAWARE.

MRS. A. D. WARNER, WILMINGTON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Home teaching for the blind, started by the Philanthropy Committee, New Century Club, July, 1906. Bill presented at last Legislature passed, appropriating $1,200 annually for such work, under care of commission appointed by judges.

Organized, "Consumers' League for Delaware," April, 1907.

Legislation.

A compulsory school law was passed by the last Delaware Assembly, requiring children to attend five consecutive school months,

except in some rural sections where the county commissioners can decide for three months. Last Legislature permitted New Castle county levy court to pay to Girls' Industrial School 40 cents per day for each pupil, which is 15 cents additional allowance.

Needs.

Need of hospital or ward for care of infectious diseases.

Better municipal accommodations for temporary prisoners.

Juvenile court is being agitated.

Remarks.

New Castle county workhouse now receives all long-term prisoners from Kent and Sussex county jails. Whipping posts no longer at those lower county prisons, which are used only for short-term prisoners and places of detention. An important step for Delaware.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

GEORGE S. WILSON, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The most important new development to report since last year is the appropriation for a new institution for the care of tuberculosis patients, as heretofore noted.

Larger appropriations have also been secured for public playgrounds and to provide for the opening up of closed alleys into minor streets.

An appropriation of $75,000 for the purchase of sites for public playgrounds has been secured, this being the first appropriation made for this purpose.

Legislation.

Since the last report several important bills touching social matters have been enacted into law, the principal of which are the following:

An act providing for compulsory education in the District of Columbia.

An act to provide for the establishment of a public crematorium in the District of Columbia, and for other purposes.

An act to create a board for the condemnation of insanitary buildings in the District of Columbia, and for other purposes.

An act prohibiting the purchase or procurement, sale, gift, or disposition of intoxicating liquors to or for the use of minors by unlicensed persons.

The act to provide a public crematorium provides that the bodies of all persons who die from certain contagious diseases shall be cremated, if the bodies are to be disposed of at public expense; and also, that all bodies to be disposed of at public expense may be cremated unless there is objection on the part of friends or relatives.

The act to create a board for the condemnation of insanitary buildings provides for the condemnation by this board of buildings unfit for human habitation. Heretofore, it has been difficult to have such buildings destroyed. There are a great many poor people in the District of Columbia living in old shacks that are gradually becoming worse, and it is hoped that the new board will promptly condemn such buildings as ought to be vacated. The board was organized in July, 1906, and commenced its active work August 3, 1906. Since that time 150 houses have been taken down and 50 houses have been repaired by order of the board. There are 131 cases now pending.

Needs.

There is urgent need for hospital facilities for chronic, inebriate and convalescent patients. The facilities for the care of chronic patients are very inadequate. There is no special institution, or special department of any existing institution, for the treatment of the inebriate, and there is no law providing for their confinement or treatment. There is no provision whatever for the care of convalescent patients. There is need of a revision of the laws governing the detention of insane persons and for the treatment of acute cases without the necessity of a public court trial. There is still need for more adequate means for the treatment of the feeble-minded and epileptic. At present the feeble-minded are cared for in institutions outside the District of Columbia, and it has been impossible to secure proper treatment for colored feeble-minded persons. The only provision for epileptics is in the hospital for the insane. The District of Columbia is still without a child labor law.

FLORIDA.

MRS. C. H. SEATON, SUPERINTENDENT AND FINANCIAL SECRETARY OF CHILDREN'S HOME SOCIETY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

A child labor bill was enacted last legislature.

Needs.

The recognized needs of the State are as follows:

Institutions for feeble-minded and crippled children.
Industrial schools for girls and boys.
Juvenile courts, curfew law.
Public playgrounds.

Remarks.

The Narcoossie Sunshine Home in Osceola County for consumptives is designed for recent cases only. No case has ever been refused because of poverty. Interest in the care of juvenile offenders is being aroused in Jacksonville, many being sent to northern institutions. Other charities are active in Jacksonville.

GEORGIA.

DR. T. D. LONGINO, ATLANTA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The Central Juvenile Protectory, which has been working in nine southern states for the establishment of juvenile courts and to prevent the throwing of young boys and girls into contact with hardened criminals in penitentiaries, at a meeting of the directors held in Atlanta, Ga., on March 21, 1907, decided to change its name to the "Juvenile State."

A large body of land will be secured near Atlanta, to which the courts will be asked to send such young persons as are thought to need better environment. Here these young persons will be their own rulers. The state will be organized as any other state. There will be a governor, a legislature, and a judicial system which will exercise full powers. Laws will be made and enforced and any offenders tried in the courts and its sentences duly administered by the proper officers. There will be a coin of the realm, peculiarly its own, and with this coin all the necessities of life

must be purchased. All the citizens of the state will be paid for their labor in this coin and none without it may secure food. Altogether the state will be so organized as to teach the problems of everyday life just as they must be met when the boys and girls go out to make their own livings.

Legislation.

The state reformatory has been permanently established at Milledgeville, Ga. Malefactors sixteen years old and under may be sentenced to this reformatory by the circuit judges. At this reformatory they are given educational and moral training, and can be held until 21 years of age, but may be released before that period on probation, being still subject to the control of the reformatory managers, however.

Needs.

The state sadly needs a state superintendent of charity or supervisor of the correctional institutions of the state. It might be better to provide a state board for that purpose. The province of this board should be to look into the condition and management of municipal and state prisons, reformatories, workhouses, jails, infirmaries, children's homes, pauper homes and state institutions.

The state also needs a separate institution for epileptics and feeble-minded, and this question has been agitated for several months in the press, and doubtless will be brought to the attention of the Legislature this year.

IDAHO.

J. T. HUMPHRIES, ST. ANTHONY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Since the last report there has been established in Boise City, Idaho, a School for the Blind and Deaf.

Needs.

An institution for orphans and one for the feeble-minded are among the needs of the state, but there is no united effort toward securing them.

Remarks.

The people have been so engrossed in developing the material resources of the state that there is no generally recognized need of charities and correction.

ILLINOIS.

WM. C. GRAVES, SECRETARY BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Board of Charities.

The Board of Charities, with the co-operation of superintendents and trustees, has brought about improvements in administration, especially of hospitals for the insane, including business managers, psychopathologists, gynecologists, women physicians and internes, dental internes, training schools for nurses and attendants, uniform medical records, uniform nomenclature and grades of positions of employment, with maximum and minimum salaries for each grade; employment on a larger scale for chronic insane, amusement and recreation for patients on a larger scale, the segregation of insane consumptives, and other minor matters. A census of consumptives in Illinois charitable, penal and reformatory institutions showed 1,123 suspected, curable and advanced stage cases out of a total population of 17,382, or 6.47 per cent.

Visitation of Children.

The department for the visitation of children placed in family homes was created under an act of 1905. A state agent and two home visitors were provided for, to be appointed under the direction of the State Board of Charities. The number of wards in the state subject to visitation to date are 1,390, but owing to inadequacy of funds only 940 visits were made. The number of towns visited in which wards of the state were located are 269, in 78 counties out of 102; and other work of the office was performed as far as funds would permit.

Civil Service.

The civil service commission has aided in protecting institutions and building up the service. Politics no longer is considered in appointments. Political assessments on employes have been elim-

inated. Hospital tramps have ceased to receive consideration. Employes realize the tenure of their positions depend solely upon merit and that their appointment was obtained without a pull. Great improvement has been manifested, particularly in the medical staffs, the engineering departments, nursing corps, agricultural departments, and the trades where technical skill is required. Now the superintendent requires competent employes and, unless they prove themselves such, dismisses them. Drunkenness, insubordination and loafing are not permitted, because there is no pull to keep an employe in his position. The public service is being conducted as nearly like a high-class private business as is possible.

New Buildings.

During the last year new buildings at various institutions, provided for by the last General Assembly, have been erected at an aggregate cost of $373,000.

LEGISLATION.

The board recommended $7,389,916 for the seventeen State charitable institutions for the biennial period for new buildings at institutions (besides the new institutions recommended), for physical rehabilitation of old structures and improved equipment and for maintenance. After a long session, during much of which the charities recommendations formed a storm center, the Legislature appropriated $6,878,402, or $511,514 less than the Board of Charities recommended. But practically all of the board's policies were recognized.

The Insane.

The board asked for complete state care of the insane. In support of a bill to bring this about a midwinter inspection was made of every almshouse in the state, in addition to the regular county auxiliary board summer inspection and report. The results were published in an illustrated bulletin. The midwinter inspection showed that in one almshouse a girl was hobbled with chains to keep her from annoying other insane patients. In many of the almshouses steel cells, cages and handcuffs were used to restrain the insane. Lack of fire protection, the presence of filth and vermin and other unsatisfactory almshouse conditions were set forth. The complete state care bill passed. While the new act does not carry appropriations it provides the machinery for

gradually removing to state hospitals all insane in county almshouses. It also provides for a system of pay patients, which, if thoroughly enforced, will produce an income to the state as high as $350,000 per annum. While appropriations for increased capacity, especially for curative hospitals, are not sufficient to care for the normal increase of insane cases and to empty the almshouses during the next two years, it is believed the next Legislature will provide the required funds. In the meantime the State Board of Charities will keep a close watch upon county almshouses to see that the best possible care is given to the insane remaining in them.

The appropriation of $25,000 for the psychopathic Institute (resembling the New York Pathological Institute), with headquarters at Kankakee, and with a branch in each hospital for the insane, is sufficient to provide for the thorough education of physicians in the state service and for considerable original research. This is a distinct and notable step in advance.

The water treatment for the insane is provided at every hospital, but, in some instances, on a restricted basis.

Rehabilitation of physical property has been authorized at each institution, but in some cases on too limited a scale to carry out the moderate policies of the Board of Charities.

Epileptic Colony.

The board recommended $265,000 for an institution for improvable epileptics, after having made a census of epileptics in state institutions (1,015), and estimating the epileptics in the state not receiving public care (10,000). The bill to establish this institution did not pass.

Sanatorium for Consumptives.

The Board of Charities recommended $150,000 for a sanatorium for curable consumptives. The bill did not pass. Private sanatoria are maintained at Ottawa, Naperville and Dunning.

Joliet Penitentiary.

While the two penitentiaries and reformatory do not come under the jurisdiction of the Board of Charities, the board, by request of the governor, made an inspection and report on the Joliet prison. The report condemned the prison and recommended the

erection of new structures. The Legislature passed a bill appropriating $500,000 to purchase not fewer than 2,000 acres of land in one piece, and to erect thereon by convict labor the necessary buildings for penitentiary use and for a hospital for insane criminals, to replace the hospital at Menard, which the Board of Charities condemned. The total outlay contemplated is $3,000,000. This constructive legislation will give the state two new institutions, each with the valuable adjunct of large farms for the employment of convicts and the criminal insane. Modern buildings will replace unsanitary and ill-located buildings, and in the case of the criminal insane a structure that is absolutely dangerous, both as to location and construction.

Other Institutions.

In the matter of new buildings, other institutions are provided for as follows:

Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children—	
Gymnasium and playroom	$20,000
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home—	
Two cottages and hospital for soldiers' wives	170,000
State Training School for Girls—	
Four new cottages	80,000
St. Charles School for Boys—	
Two cottages and infirmary	57,500
Gymnasium (given by Commercial Club of Chicago)	50,000

Visitation of Children.

The salary of the state agent is increased and he is allowed two more visitors, making four in all, but no provision is made for salaries for the additional visitors. Other acts of the Legislature affecting this department are: Revising the law for adoption of children, amended particularly as to parental consent; notice to parents or guardians, setting forth explicitly who the defendants are in matters of adoption; also grounds of unfitness, etc. Regarding the treatment and control of dependent and delinquent children, amended by the addition of nine new sections covering points wherein the court has jurisdiction to place children in a hospital for special treatment, with or without consent of parents; guardianship of delinquent or dependent children, wherein the

court may cite into court, institution guardians or parents and require report of child under guardianship. Vesting in county judges the power to appoint probation officers where the population is between 70,000 and 500,000, which amends the former act regulating the control and treatment of neglected and dependent children. Providing for the reception and care of almshouse children (107) at the Soldiers' Orphans' Home. Cook county is erecting a special building for the juvenile court and detention home; capacity 130 children, cost $125,000.

Civil Service.

The civil service commission is authorized to open all examinations to the public where there are not enough persons seeking promotion from which to select a competent head of a department; from promotional examinations only one name shall be certified instead of three; is given power to investigate removals and to order reinstatements with pay during suspension; may appoint examiners with power to conduct examinations, making it possible to go closer to the applicants than in the past, thus reducing expense of examinations. It is a misdemeanor for applicants to make false presentations to the commission, or for their friends to do so in their behalf. The six months' probation period is eliminated. The position of institution treasurer is exempted from civil service.

Free Diphtheria Antitoxin.

Fifteen thousand dollars a year is appropriated for free diphtheria antitoxin.

The nurses' registration bill, after a hard and dramatic fight, including a veto two years ago, was passed and signed by the governor.

Needs.

The state needs a sanatorium for curable consumptives and a second institution for the feeble-minded. An appropriation is needed to make effective an existing law for the establishment of an epileptic colony.

The Board of Charities needs more money (denied this year) to build up a complete library so that it can give systematic study to problems of charity administration, publish papers on scientific,

sociological, penological, philanthropic and economic issues arising in the state institutions, and make more rigid and frequent inspections of institutions.

The law for the visitation of children in family homes should be amended to provide for a larger office force and for more extensive and thorough work.

There should be a law permitting the State Board of Charities to inspect, and the State Board of Health to license, lying-in hospitals. A bill for this purpose failed to pass this year.

The State Board of Charities should be given supervision over poor relief by counties.

The state needs a complete and extensive system of civil service. The amendments (defeated this year) most favored provide for civil service in all departments of the Capitol, the state factory inspector, grain inspection, food commission, and the prisons and reformatory. The Pontiac Reformatory, practically, has been placed on a merit basis, the civil service commission already having furnished it a number of employes. At present the merit law covers only the seventeen state charitable institutions.

INDIANA.

MISS LAURA GREELY, CHIEF CLERK BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The development of philanthropic interest throughout the state is notable. More than six hundred delegates and visitors registered at the last State Conference and the meeting was very enthusiastic. From time to time a new Board of County Charities or a new Board of Children's Guardians is appointed, indicating continued local interest. Some new hospitals have been opened, and there is improvement in the erection of new buildings in a number of counties for jail or poor asylum purposes. Two orphans' home associations have replaced their old buildings with new structures.

Legislation.

The General Assembly of 1907 enacted more laws affecting the work of charities and correction than any other in the history of the state, and the new laws are as notable in quality as in quantity. In all, thirty-five have been added to our statute books.

State Charities.

In the field of "state" charities provision was made for one new institution—a hospital for the treatment of tuberculosis. The law authorizes the appointment of a commission to locate the institution and $30,000 was appropriated for the purchase of the site. A state workhouse for women was created by a law providing for the transfer of all convicted women from county jails to what is to be termed "The Correctional Department of the Women's Prison" at Indianapolis. This is the wing formerly occupied by the Industrial School for Girls, which is soon to be moved into its new quarters in the country. Forty thousand dollars was appropriated for remodeling the building. The women are to be employed "in such manner as the board of trustees shall deem best," and are to be given mental, moral and manual training.

For the state prison there was appropriated a revolving sum of $200,000 for the operation of its binder twine plant; the four state institutions in process of erection (the Village for Epileptics, the Southeastern Hospital for the Insane, the Industrial School for Girls and the State School for the Deaf) were given varying sums; the matter of the transfer of incorrigible and overage prisoners between the reformatory and the state prison was more satisfactorily arranged; provision was made whereby the counties will furnish the indigent insane in state hospitals with a better supply of clothing; $60,000 was appropriated for two new cottages at the Eastern Hospital for the Insane near Richmond; outsiders are prohibited from exchanging articles with institution inmates; special authority was granted for protecting state institution grounds from trespassers.

Of special importance in this group of laws, though mentioned last, is the new statute which places all the state charitable and correctional institutions on a uniform basis in their management and in the appointment of officers and employes. The governor is to appoint four persons as trustees, not more than two from any one political party; the trustees are to appoint the superintendent and the superintendent selects his officers and employes without suggestion or interference from the trustees and without regard to political affiliation. Competence alone must govern such appointments. Campaign assessments are prohibited and in every way the institutions are to be conducted on a non-partisan basis.

The Children.

Several new laws affecting children were passed. Children can not hereafter be supported at public expense unless adjudged public wards by the juvenile court of a county and committed to the proper authorities. In the same law, provision is made for the punishment of parents or guardians for the child's condition, if such is due to a wilful neglect of duty. This necessitates the organization of a juvenile court in each county in the state, as provided for by the juvenile court law of 1903. The judge of the circuit court is to act as judge of the juvenile court. The contributory delinquency law was amended, giving the juvenile court jurisdiction and the juvenile court law was amended by a provision for the appointment of special judges and for hearing cases in vacation. Another enactment provides for an appeal to the appellate court from any decision of the juvenile court, except when there has been a plea of guilty.

Crime and Criminals.

Among the laws on the subject of crime and criminals probably the most notable is one authorizing an operation designed to prevent procreation of confirmed criminals, idiots, imbeciles and rapists. So far as we know, Indiana is the first state to add such a law to its statutes. Another law provides life imprisonment for habitual criminals. The authorities of the reformatory and the state prison are given a better opportunity to reform those convicted of petit larceny by a law which increases the maximum sentence for that offense from three years to eight years. An enactment which has long been advocated by workers in this field is one authorizing circuit and criminal courts to suspend sentence and parole prisoners convicted of crimes and misdemeanors. Child desertion is made a felony and the punishment is imprisonment in the state prison or reformatory for not more than seven years nor less than one year, authority being given to suspend sentence. A somewhat similar law provides punishment for a man who deserts his family. Another law in this group fixes the punishment of a man who encourages a girl under eighteen years of age to enter a saloon or other questionable place, and still another raises the age of consent "from 14 to 16 years."

Needs.

While the greater part of the recommendations made to the Legislature of 1907 by the Board of State Charities were enacted into law, some further needs of the state are generally recognized. Principal among these are: Additional provision at the School for Feeble-Minded Youth for the care of feeble-minded women; a system of county jail supervision which will provide for official condemnation by some board when the jail is in bad condition; a district workhouse system; an institution for sick and crippled children.

IOWA.

F. S. TREAT, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CONTROL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Under the juvenile court act, chapter 11, Acts of the Thirtieth General Assembly, reports of cases have been made to this board as follows:

43 counties report no cases.
57 counties report 515 cases; 361 male, 154 female.

These cases were disposed of as follows:

Paroled to probation officer or returned to parents	228
Sent to private homes	32
Sent to homes or associations for friendless	73
Sent to state institutions	161
Cases dismissed or continued	21

In two hundred sixty-seven cases reported, the ages are given ranging from four months to seventeen years.

Legislation.

The Legislature, which has just adjourned, enacted a law creating a reformatory, where all first offenders between the ages of 16 and 30, except those convicted of murder or treason, are to be committed. The new law also carries with it the indeterminate sentence and creates a parole board.

There was also enacted a wife-desertion law.

Remarks.

Iowa has many small towns that do not have enough charitable work done to justify the establishment of a Charitable Organization Society or Associated Charities in each. There is a movement on foot in a number of counties and communities to establish a Charity Organization Society whose field will cover a number of small towns.

KANSAS.

PROF. F. W. BLACKMAR, LAWRENCE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The principal laws passed by the last Legislature relating to charities and correction were as follows:

The abolition of capital punishment, making the greatest punishment in the state to be life imprisonment. The amendment to the juvenile court bill, making parents and guardians of delinquent children responsible and amenable to the juvenile court—some minor amendments to the law. A law permitting the judge of the district court to suspend sentence of prisoners between the ages of 16 and 21; this is to be done when in his judgment certain convicted persons are better off outside of the prison than inside it. Bills were passed to make adequate appropriation for the complete equipment of the industrial phase of the Hutchinson Reformatory, and the Hospital for Epileptics at Parsons. A bill was introduced for control and regulation of jails, but it failed to pass. Laws were passed allowing cities of the first and second class to establish government by commission in cases where the people decide by popular vote to make the change.

Needs.

Classification of insane, prevention of keeping insane on county poor farms; provisions for care of physically deficient; separation of chronic weak-minded from curable weak-minded; law placing penitentiary and industrial reformatory under supervision of state board of control; law placing schools for blind and deaf under department of state public instruction; law regulating the construction and management of jails; more land for Boys' Industrial School.

Remarks.

Better preparation of officials for their work and better salaries would make a vast difference in efficiency. A superintendent of charitable and penal institutions, working in connection with the State Board of Control, who would look after educational, scientific and remedial phases of administration, would be of great service in Kansas.

KENTUCKY.

THOMAS D. OSBORNE, PRESIDENT KENTUCKY STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, LOUISVILLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No session of the Legislature since the last report.

New Developments.

The movement to provide sanatoria for the cure of tuberculosis is growing. An old people's home has been founded in Louisville by German Protestants. The women's clubs are inspecting county school houses and securing improvements. The Consumers' League and the labor inspectors are doing good work.

Needs.

A non-partisan State Board of Charities; better school law; better child labor law.

LOUISIANA.

MICHEL HEYMANN, NEW ORLEANS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Act No. 51. To provide that in all criminal prosecutions, sentences to imprisonment without qualification, and all sentences for the violation of ordinances, shall mean imprisonment with labor and regulating the employment of such prisoners.

Act No. 82. Juvenile court law. (Declared unconstitutional since by the Supreme Court.)

Act No. 160. For purchasing ground and beginning construction of building for State Reform School. Amount appropriated, $20,000.

Needs.

First. Increased accommodations for insane.

Second. Increased appropriation for Boys' Reform School.

Third. A new juvenile court law, providing for probation officers.

Fourth. Appropriation for secretary and traveling expenses for the State Board of Charities.

MAINE.

E. P. WENTWORTH, PORTLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

An act was passed establishing a state school for the care and education of the idiotic and feeble-minded, six years of age and upward. to be known as the Maine School for the Feeble-Minded, and sixty thousand dollars were appropriated for the use of this school for the next two years. An act was also passed to take a census of the deaf, dumb, blind, feeble-minded, idiotic, and insane in this state, in August of each year, through the co-operation of the assessors of each city and town in the state, and the Board of State Assessors.

An appropriation of forty thousand dollars was made, to provide for a workshop, where the blind may learn trades which will make them self-supporting.

The Legislature made an appropriation for a building for the criminal insane, to be erected on the arsenal grounds belonging to the Maine Insane Hospital at Augusta. When the building is completed the criminal insane now at the insane department of the state prison will be transferred to it, and all new commitments of the criminal insane will be made to this building, which will be in charge of the superintendent of the Maine Insane Hospital, and the board of trustees thereof.

The laws for the protection of children and the employment of minors in manufacturing or mechanical establishments have been strengthened and made more effective.

An attempt to establish county almshouses was defeated.

The laws relating to the employment of prisoners committed for crime have been amended so as to authorize their employment for the benefit of the county or of their own dependent families. The

county commissioners may pay the proceeds of such labor, less a reasonable sum to be deducted therefrom for the cost of maintenance of such prisoners, to the families of such persons as may be dependent upon them for support.

An act was passed making it a misdemeanor for a man to desert his wife or neglect to provide for her maintenance when she is in destitute circumstances, or for any parent to desert a child under sixteen years of age or neglect or refuse to support such child when the child is in needy circumstances. The penalty provided is a fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, or imprisonment with or without hard labor not more than six months, or both fine and imprisonment. If the respondent is employed in the county jail at hard labor, he is to be allowed fifty cents a day, which amount is to be paid by the county to the man's wife or children. Where fine is imposed the whole or any part of the amount may be paid to the wife or children. In place of fine or imprisonment the court may require the respondent to give bond for the payment of a certain specified sum weekly for the support of his family, and they may release the respondent on probation for one year.

Needs.

1. An intermediate reformatory for young men, on the plan of the Elmira Reformatory, New York.
2. A woman's reformatory.

Remarks.

A strong effort was made to secure a law providing for the appointment of a State Board of Charities for Maine. Fifteen hundred people, including five ex-governors, all the college presidents in the state, representatives from every single charitable institution in the state receiving state money, except from the institutions of one denomination and two small institutions, from which no replies were received, indorsed the movement. Instead of enacting the law asked for, the Legislature provided for the appointment of a commission to consider the whole matter and report at the next Legislature. While this postpones the appointment of the board for two years it is the general belief that the next Legislature will pass a law providing for the establishment of a Board of State Charities for Maine.

MARYLAND.

NATHANIEL G. GRASTY, BALTIMORE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

State Conference of Charities and Correction revived, after nine years without a meeting.

Preliminary steps taken for the organization of a state branch of the National Society for Moral and Social Prophylaxis.

Announcement made of the gift of $25,000 for the establishment of a sanatorium for Jewish consumptives, and the completion of pledges amounting to $10,000 annually for its support for three years.

A new general hospital at Eastern Maryland, and the employment of a rural visiting nurse in connection therewith.

The organization of an inter-city settlement association, composed of settlement workers of Washington and Baltimore.

Provision of school pensions by the Federated Charities of Baltimore for children living in the city who were taken from employment under the child labor law, and placed in school.

The provision of two similar scholarships by the state child labor committee for such children living in the counties.

The organization of two county branches of the State Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis at Hagerstown and Cambridge, Md.

Needs.

Maryland needs to make more adequate provision for the care of feeble-minded children, also to make provision for the custodial care of feeble-minded women of child-bearing age.

More adequate appropriations for care of the insane, owing to the fact that the state will undertake the care of all indigent insane in 1909.

Some general provision for the care of advanced cases of tuberculosis.

MASSACHUSETTS.

JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

It is a matter of public importance, and for the rejoicing of the informed, that Jeffrey R. Brackett was appointed last June by Governor Guild to the State Board of Charity, which board continues

to improve in the amount of attention and intelligence bestowed by its members upon the institutions and departments under its charge or supervision.

Legislation.

My report last year was written in the middle of the legislative session. The story had a happy ending in almost every respect. The Civic League's medical inspection bill went through, and Mr. Martin, secretary of the State Board of Education, recently reported that probably nine-tenths of our 354 cities and towns have made appropriations and appointed school physicians. The tests of sight and hearing not being dependent upon these appropriations are presumably taking place in every city and town. Mr. Martin says that more than 400,000 children have already been tested, and the reports as to 224,632 of these show that 44,123, or about 20 per cent. have defective vision, and 13,145, or about 6 per cent. have defective hearing. Mr. Martin points out certain dangers; among others, that too many children may be made to wear glasses, that poor glasses may be supplied by so-called opticians, and that children may suffer from the ignorance or wilfulness of parents.

The Civic League's bills establishing a juvenile court for Boston and for dealing with the children throughout the state more from the point of view of what can be done *for* them and less from that of what can be done *to* them, went through. A commission for the blind was established; the assignment of wages was regulated; the numerous bills to injure the Lyman and Industrial Schools were defeated. Fifty thousand dollars was appropriated for a new school for the feeble-minded, and a tract of 500 acres in a country district has since been bought, which will have the result of draining that class, especially the girls, more thoroughly out of the system of the body politic.

The "overtime" bill, forbidding the employment in textile manufactories of any person under eighteen years of age, and of any woman between the hours of 6 P. M. and 6 A. M., which was lost by a tie vote in the senate last year, became an issue in the fall campaign, and as a result has already passed this year.

Other bills that have passed this year are: One plugging up the hole that was kicked by the patent medicine men in our bill of last year, requiring the percentage of alcohol to be stated on the

bottle; two Boston bills, one giving the school committee $24,000 a year for nurses in the public schools, and the other giving power to carry on play and physical education in its own buildings and yards and upon the playgrounds (now numbering twenty-one available for this purpose), in charge of the Park Department, and appropriating $50,000 a year for this purpose. This last bill marks the final success of the policy pursued since 1899 by the Civic League, looking to making the playground a part of the public school system.

A new building law for Boston having been agitated with varying success for a number of years, one was this year reported by a commission appointed by Mayor Fitzgerald. A committee of the Civic League has secured the insertion by the commission in its bill, and the unanimous report of the committee on cities, of provisions governing the construction of tenement houses modeled upon the present New York law, being somewhat better than that law in some respects and somewhat worse in others, but on the whole making very good provision in the matter. The bill passed.

The old reliable bill to establish an intermediate reformatory for boys between the Lyman School class and the class appropriate to the State Reformatory has been favorably reported and is likely to pass. Mr. Brandeis's bill to empower savings banks to do an insurance business has also been favorably reported, and I think the chances are in favor of its passage. A bill establishing a private corporation with power to do insurance over the counter and to establish agencies for the same, has been passed, as has a bill abolishing bucket shops.

Bills are pending to make railroads, like other people, refrain from committing smoke nuisance in Boston, and for requiring parents whose children have been taken away from them on account of cruelty or neglect to help to pay for their support.

One of the most important bills passed is one to take the power of factory inspection from the district police, who have never taken very much interest in the matter, and give it to a set of district medical examiners, about thirty of whom are to be appointed by the governor and council, and are to report to the State Board of Health.

A very important question looming up in this Legislature, and sure to come up again until something radical is done, is the question of workmen's compensation, several bills on which subject

have been introduced and referred to a recess committee. Our present, inherited, accident law requiring, as it does, that a jury shall pass upon questions which no human intelligence can possibly solve, which, indeed, often have no meaning—namely, whether the man who was hurt was negligent and whether he assumed the risk of the thing happening which did happen, and how much he ought to get, assuming that these two questions should be answered in the negative—this ancient, if not honorable heirloom, certainly needs remodeling and repair to meet modern conditions, in the interest both of plaintiffs and defendants, and of the public, which spends vast sums of money in providing courts and judges and juries for the purpose of wrestling daily with these unsolvable conundrums. The only people who benefit through the present situation are the shyster lawyers—if it is a benefit to a man to make a living by practices verging, or ceasing to verge, upon the dishonest.

Needs.

Under the head of needs, I think our most definite one is a better institution for dealing with drunkards and inebriates. We still send about twenty thousand persons a year to our county prisons for this offense, thereby doing our best to make them criminals and to lessen any chance they might otherwise have of shaking off their evil tendencies.

Remarks.

The year's most illuminating development, as indicating public opinion in charity matters, was the revelation, as to how far the opinion of the unenlightened has progressed, contained in the remark of Lieutenant-Governor Draper, chairman of the Massachusetts committee on the San Francisco disaster, that anyone having a special training in charitable work was thereby unfitted for dealing with the destitution which that disaster caused. It is well to know the worst; and our lieutenant-governor stands, I suppose, as a type of the average, well-meaning business man. Upon the whole, however, I think that as a result of the San Francisco experience the principles of organized charity—respect for individuality and for the underlying springs of character, with the resulting care in dealing with the great normal needs to which those springs respond—have gained in popular knowledge and

popular appreciation and acceptance. John F. Moors, director, and Miss Alice L. Higgins, secretary, of the Associated Charities of Boston, and Miss Mary L. Birtwell, secretary of the Cambridge Associated Charities, represented the trained intelligence of Massachusetts as applied to the San Francisco situation, and contributed to the adequate meeting of the situation, as well as to the favorable educational result.

MICHIGAN.

LUCIUS C. STORRS, SECRETARY BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The Michigan Legislature meets biennially; there has therefore been no new legislation since last report. The Legislature of 1907 is now in session. Bills have been introduced, with fair prospect of their being enacted into laws, providing for juvenile courts; for the punishment of persons contributing to the delinquency of children; for the establishment of a binding twine plant at the state prison; for the punishment of wife and family desertion; for establishing compulsory education of blind and deaf children; for the conversion of the psychopathic ward at the University of Michigan into a state psychopathic hospital. The constitution of the state has been amended by striking out the provision that "No mechanical trade shall be taught to convicts in the state prison of this state."

MINNESOTA.

A. W. GUTRIDGE, ST. PAUL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Perhaps the most important development of the year has been the increased interest in tuberculosis. Luther Hospital, in St. Paul, has for some years devoted one wing wholly to the use of consumptives. Last year, under the direction of Dr. H. L. Taylor of St. Paul, a sanatorium for tuberculosis cases was opened near Rush City. The most important donation made to the work was that by Mr. Geo. H. Christian of Minneapolis, who at his own expense, opened a tuberculosis camp and supported it last summer. It was planned to treat children only, but it was soon decided to

admit some adults. The services of the nurse were continued during the winter, but the camp was broken up during the cold weather. It is in operation again now. In the past year a state association for the prevention and cure of tuberculosis was organized, which is preparing to put an agent in the field soon. With the aid of the State Board of Health the American Tuberculosis Exhibition was brought to the Twin Cities and was opened eleven days in Minneapolis and nine days in St. Paul, and was visited by nearly fifty thousand people.

Another advance step is that of a summer school for blind adults, to be maintained for a period of ten weeks at the state school for the blind this summer.

Legislation.

Perhaps the most significant item of legislation due to the 1907 Legislature was the establishment of a State Board of Visitors of Public Institutions. The board of control plan of administering the state charitable and correctional institutions has not, so far, embraced the idea of the need for supervision or inspection. In this state these institutions have been under a board of control since 1901. The board of visitors just established by law is to be a supervising body in relation to the state and other public institutions. This does not indicate dissatisfaction with the board of control, but points to more complete appreciation of the whole situation on the part of the people of the state generally. Another important law enacted, in this case at the suggestion of the board of control, was that providing detention hospitals for the insane in connection with each of the hospitals for the insane proper. The plan is to have every person committed, detained for special examination and observation, before being placed in the hospital for the insane. Another enactment having to do with the insane establishes after care by means of trained state agents. The state agency system which has proved so effective in work for dependent and delinquent children and also in work for paroled prisoners in this state, is thus extended to the insane, and, by the same law, to persons discharged from the school for the feeble-minded and from the colony for epileptics. Other laws relating to the insane provide for a hospital for the dangerous or criminal insane, and for tuberculosis hospitals in connection with each of the insane hospitals.

Former reports of the state corresponding secretary to the National Conference have dwelt upon an industrial school for girls as our greatest need. Attempts have been made by several legislatures to establish such an institution. The chief difficulty has been that the people of Red Wing, where the Training School for Boys and Girls is located, desire to have the school for girls located at that city also. A large number of the people of the state interested have been of the opinion that the new school could more effectively do its work if located in some other city. The Legislature which just adjourned enacted a law establishing the school and making an appropriation to commence its construction, but turned the question of the location of the new institution over to the board of control for settlement.

Another important law relating to children was a comprehensive enactment providing for the punishment of parents or other people who wilfully cause or contribute to the dependency or delinquency of children. By another law the cities of Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth are given the authority to establish detention homes for juvenile court children. Other laws enacted on this subject render easier the working of the probation laws and increase the salaries of probation officers, and also provide extra clerks for the juvenile courts.

The State Hospital for Crippled and Deformed Children has been operated in a wing of the St. Paul City Hospital. By a new law provision is made for the construction of a new building to be used for this purpose, the city of St. Paul donating a large tract of timbered land on the outskirts of the city for use in connection with the hospital. The state sanatorium for consumptives was considered in an act which more clearly defines its place.

Another important item of legislation was that establishing a hospital farm for inebriates. Under the terms of this act inebriates will be committed on a substantially indeterminate sentence, to be discharged when cured. Still another constructive measure was that establishing state registration of nurses.

Other laws on social subjects enacted make education compulsory for deaf children; render more effective the child labor laws; enlarge the scope of the state bureau of labor and provide a woman factory inspector; establish free public employment bureaus in the cities of St. Paul and Duluth as well as in Minneapolis; make more effective the regulations concerning private employment bu-

reaus; simplify the caring for animals exposed to the weather; make more stringent the laws relating to the sale of liquor to minors and drunkards; simplify procedure on the part of health boards in the control of infectious diseases, abatement of nuisances and collection of vital statistics; open the way for the establishment of public baths in cities having from twenty to fifty thousand inhabitants; limit the number of state prisoners who may be employed in any particular occupation, with certain exceptions; make it illegal for junk dealers to buy from minors; render more effective the laws relating to pure food; transfer Itasca State Park to the State Forestry Board; and provide for restocking forest reserves.

Needs.

Until we shall get ourselves adjusted to the working of the new legislation secured, we are not in good position to say what our greatest needs are.

MISSOURI.

MISS MARY E. PERRY, ST. LOUIS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A new and handsome hospital has been added to our Missouri penitentiary, well ventilated and sanitary in every respect. The new department for women has just been completed and furnished.

A Social Service Conference was organized a few weeks ago, which is planning to do accurate and vigorous work for the betterment of civic conditions.

Legislation.

Among the important bills passed by the Missouri Legislature at its present session is that relating to child labor, which prohibits all children of fourteen from engaging in any gainful occupations, and no child under sixteen shall work more than nine hours a day or fifty-four hours in one week, and no minor under sixteen before seven o'clock in the morning and after seven in the evening. There shall be posted in all establishments employing children the number of hours and the time children shall be engaged. The name of the child, its age, physical condition and residence shall be given to the factory inspector, or others in authority who may desire

such information. In cases where the family is dependent upon the labor of the child no provision has been made by law, but private philanthropy, after thorough investigation, has supplied the means of support when it was necessary.

The parent, in cities of five thousand inhabitants, is made responsible for the regular attendance of the child between the ages of eight and fourteen during the entire school year, or the equivalent of this teaching shall be given the child at home. Minors over fourteen years of age, who shall purchase or obtain intoxicating liquor shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and fined twenty-five dollars. Any person contributing to the delinquency of a child shall be held responsible, and upon conviction fined not more than $500 or imprisoned in the county jail or both.

The prisoners in our penitentiary who are employed in the workshops or other ways about the institution, shall receive 5 per cent. of their daily earnings. Fifteen dollars of this shall be laid aside and given them upon their release. The surplus of their earnings shall be used for their families when it can be proven they are dependent for support upon this fund, or it may be used for the personal necessities of the convict while he is in prison. This expenditure shall be left to the discretion of the warden. This Legislature appropriated money for the employment of State agents to obtain employment and look after the boys in the State Manual Training School and the Industrial Home for Girls, when they are paroled or released from these institutions. The Missouri School for the Blind has changed the school age and admits children now at six years and they remain until the age of eighteen.

City Legislation.

The detention home for the juvenile court was opened in March. The judge of the court holds his sessions in the building and it is the administration headquarters of the probation officers of the court.

An ordinance has just been passed forbidding the establishment of any hospital, dispensary, foundling home, lying-in place and any institution intended for boarding, lodging or care of the sick and suffering, without first obtaining permission from the board of health, which shall make rules for the government and regulation of such places. Several licenses or permits to operate such institutions have already been refused to doubtful parties.

The public recreation commission has an able woman as superintendent. There are eleven playgrounds, four baths (one floating and three pools) under her charge.

Needs.

The juvenile court law to be extended and made applicable to all places in the state. A law to convict and punish for wife desertion. Improved methods in the administration of our penitentiary. Fixed salaries for all county officials.

NEBRASKA.

C. E. PREVEY, LINCOLN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

At the session of the Legislature held this winter the following laws were enacted:

A child labor law prohibiting the employment of children under 14 years of age during school hours and at any time in certain occupations, viz.: theaters, concert halls, places of amusement, places where intoxicating liquors are sold, mercantile institutions, stores, offices, hotels, laundries, manufacturing establishments, bowling alleys, passenger and freight elevators, factories and workshops or as messenger or driver therefor. Children from fourteen to sixteen years of age shall not be employed, permitted or suffered to work in any of the above specified occupations unless the employer has a certificate of employment from the superintendent of schools or his agents certifying that the child has passed the eighth grade, or is attending night school, and that he is physically able to perform the work.

A strong pure food law was passed.

A law was passed authorizing county boards to expend money for juvenile detention homes. The juvenile court law was amended by making the age limit 18 years instead of 16 years.

A bill authorizing county commissioners to appropriate county money for payment of expenses of one of their own number in attendance at the state conference of charities was defeated.

Appropriations for new buildings for the state charitable institutions were all cut out in the upper house or vetoed by the governor on the grounds that the appropriations would exceed the revenue

of the state. The most needed appropriations which failed were those for a new building enlarging the capacity of the institution for feeble-minded and for a separate building for the orthopedic hospital.

Needs.

The most obvious need is for a non-political State Board of Charities. The need for a separate institution for epileptics has been felt for some time and has been asked for at the hands of the Legislature. A public institution for the care of the tubercular is greatly needed, as there are few hospitals which will admit such patients. There has never been any persistent agitation for such an institution, however, and there is need of an educational campaign to start the movement.

Remarks.

There seems to be a great lack of interest in and of information about charities and correction in this state. There are only two charity organizations—in Lincoln and Omaha—and outside of these two places there is very little interest. County and city officials have never been reached at all. Over against this wall of darkness some light has been cast by the activities of the women's clubs during the last four years. Their campaign was chiefly responsible for the passage of the juvenile court law two years ago and for the child labor law this winter. They have assisted also in getting an efficient administration of the law in Omaha during the last two years, and are making systematic efforts toward that end in Lincoln now. Their efforts in these lines have directed attention to the prevention of crime and pauperism more than had been done in the past. This progress has been most marked in Omaha, where an efficient Associated Charities has been organized during the last two years.

The State Conference of Charities held in Omaha in December, 1906, was of unusual interest. Secretary Alexander Johnson was present and addressed several of the meetings. In Lincoln the Woman's Club and the newly organized Juvenile Court Association have co-operated in efforts to secure a better administration of the juvenile court law and the establishment of a detention home.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

MRS. FRANK S. STREETER, CONCORD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A new Charity Organization Society has been organized in Keene.

The Concord Charity Organization Society continues its good work, and has received inquiries from several other towns in the state regarding organized charity, but no new society, other than the one at Keene, has been established so far as known.

Legislation.

The Legislature of 1907 passed bills providing for a juvenile court and probation system in New Hampshire; a bill making it a penal offense for any man without good cause wilfully to desert, neglect or refuse to support his wife, child or children, fifteen years of age or under, and a bill providing that the state assume the expense of children committed to the State Industrial School; these children heretofore have been supported by the separate counties. The recommendation of the State Board of Charities and Correction that the state establish a separate Industrial School for Girls was not acted upon favorably, but a sum of $27,500 was appropriated for an addition to the present five-story, out-of-date building.

The legislature appropriated $28,000 for the erection of a new dormitory building at the State School for Feeble-Minded. This will increase the accommodations and make better classification possible, but no provision was made for custodial care of all feeble-minded women, as was hoped.

Needs.

The greatest needs of the state at present are a separate Industrial School for Girls, a state workhouse for the custody of persons committed for minor offenses, a separate building for epileptics at the State School for Feeble-Minded, custodial care for all feeble-minded women, and some provision for the treatment of indigent, crippled and tubercular children.

Remarks.

I think I can truthfully say that there is a steady increase of interest in matters of charity and correction in the state.

There has been no increase in the membership of the State Conference, but questions of public charity and correction are oftener discussed than heretofore, and there is more interest shown in them.

NEW YORK.

ROBERT W. HILL, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

1. Since the last report the legislature has changed the organization of the State Commission of Prisons. For several years this body consisted of three members. Under the new law it becomes a more representative body, with members from each judicial district of the state, and will be organized along the lines of the State Board of Charities, to do thorough supervisory work in all the correctional institutions of the state.

2. A new custodial asylum has been established by act of the Legislature of 1907, to be located in the eastern part of the state, and to be used as a close asylum for such epileptics, idiots and other feeble-minded persons as are unsuitable for treatment or maintenance in existing state institutions. It is intended that it shall be an asylum for what is termed "the residual class," and it is to receive this class from all the public charitable institutions.

3. The legislature has dealt with the problem of probation. A law has been enacted to establish a probation commission and put into effect the principal recommendations of the Probation Commission, which investigated the subject in 1905. The Commission will consist of seven members and have power to supervise probation and make recommendations.

4. The care of the insane is one of the great problems of the state, and it is found difficult to keep pace with the increase of patients and consequent demand for accommodations in existing institutions. The state now proposes to establish additional state hospitals in the eastern part of the state, and in them to provide sufficient accommodations and thus relieve the congested condi-

tions which now exist in the state hospitals in and adjacent to the city of New York.

5. The state charities law, in relation to the visitations and reports of managers of state charitable institutions, has been amended so that henceforth managers who fail to make visitations regularly will sever their relation to the institution without the formality of direct removal. This self-removal law will have a tendency to make the boards of managers more efficient.

6. The general appropriations for the enlargement of existing state institutions carry about the same amount as a year ago. All the state institutions need new buildings and other equipment and the legislature makes partial provision therefor, never enough to build and complete the institution, but usually enough to keep the builders and contractors at work until further appropriations may be made.

Needs.

1. The constitutional requirement that there be separate commissions or boards for the supervision of charities, corrections, and the insane, has been followed by the establishment of a number of commissions with overlapping responsibilities and somewhat ill-defined powers. There is need that this be remedied and that the financial control be vested either in the office of the state comptroller or in the board which has supervisory relations to the state institutions. If properly managed, such fiscal control and co-ordination would result in a large annual saving.

2. The powers of the State Board of Charities should be extended to cover all the charitable operations in the state, not only those of the public as a state or its several political divisions, but also all private associations which undertake the relief of the needy.

3. The extension of provisions for the restraint and reformation of juvenile delinquents through a more thoroughly organized probation system and the further extension of courts for juveniles.

Remarks.

The general tendency in matters of charity and correction is toward a more definite responsibility on the part of the officials, and toward a more comprehensive definition of social obligation upon the part of those who have means.

The establishment of such funds for social betterment as the

Sage Foundation, the Rockefeller Educational Fund, the Carnegie Trust, the Burke Foundation, and similar endowments, show a tendency toward the larger view of social obligation and the selection of a broader field for charitable effort. It is an indication that the educational work of the state and national conferences of charities and correction is bearing fruit.

The responsibility of the state itself for improvement is being more fully recognized by the establishment of new institutions and the improvement of the older ones. For example, there has been an outcry for years against the structural conditions of the prisons of the state. The Sing Sing Prison has been condemned many times by philanthropists as absolutely unfitted for prison purposes in an enlightened country. The state a year ago made provision for a new and modern prison to take its place, and, incidentally, determined that the employment of the prisoners therein shall be such as will give them more of outdoor life. Another advance is that the Elmira Reformatory, overgrown and overcrowded, has at last been reassociated with the Eastern New York Reformatory at Napanoch and the two institutions are now under one board of managers and will carry out the same general scheme of reformation as was intended when Napanoch was originally established.

Thus, along the line of progress, the state, moving somewhat slowly but surely, is showing its sense of responsibility and making adequate provision for the scientific, humane, and curative treatment of its dependents, delinquents, and defectives.

NORTH CAROLINA.

MISS DAISY DENSON, SECRETARY BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The new buildings for insane have been completed and opened for occupancy at Raleigh and Goldsboro, admitting 220 additional patients.

At Morganton Hospital an amusement hall has been erected.

Several private hospitals with charity wards have been opened.

During the year there will be much activity along this line. One hospital alone is to cost between two and three hundred thousand dollars.

Legislation.

The acts of the General Assembly of 1907 relating to the defective, destitute and delinquent classes will make the brightest page in the history of the development of our charities and corrections. In addition to laws giving actual relief, the state has declared a policy in favor of state care for all indigent mental defectives.

The Insane.

A hospital commission of five business men was created for the special purpose of expending an appropriation of $500,000 in improvements and enlargement of the present hospitals for the insane and in its discretion to establish a distinct institution, if deemed necessary. This law passed unanimously in both houses. It is very broad in construction and reads as follows: "To make provision for the care and accommodation of all mental defectives, including epileptics, dangerous, violent and indigent idiots, and all incurable as well as curable insane, and all other mental defectives whose condition is such that in the opinion of the hospital authorities they require hospital treatment and can be advantageously treated in such a colony."

Tuberculosis.

An act creating the North Carolina Tuberculosis Sanitarium for Indigent Consumptives, $15,000 for its establishment and $5,000 per annum for support. Fifteen directors were named by the Legislature. They have held their initial meeting, appointed an executive committee and are preparing to select the site.

Five thousand dollars annually was appropriated for the erection of cottages for the tubercular insane at the Morganton Hospital.

A law was enacted requiring the separation of tubercular prisoners from other prisoners and that they be confined in cells or rooms kept exclusively for their use. If there is any suspicion of the disease the officer in charge is required to have the prisoner examined. This applies to all jails, camps and state prison. It does not prevent the working together of the prisoners when in the open air.

The Reform School.

An act was passed establishing a reform school under the title of "The Stonewall Jackson Manual Training and Industrial School," with the widow of the illustrious confederate general as the first named director in the bill. There are to be fifteen directors, a number of them women. A committee of five members of the Legislature was appointed to investigate reform schools and report its recommendations to the governor by September 1st, when a meeting will be held, and the other directors, officers, etc., will be chosen. The appropriation of $5,000 per annum merely insures a beginning.

Compulsory School Law for the Deaf.

A compulsory school law was passed requiring the attendance of white deaf children, also limiting the institution to residents of North Carolina, except when there is room beyond the needs of the state, when pay pupils may be received.

A tentative compulsory school law for the state. This allows districts or counties to vote upon the question when public sentiment favors it. Also a system of high schools was established, the appropriations to state colleges largely increased and several educational institutions established.

Pensions.

Pensions to Confederate veterans were increased to $400,000 per annum.

Child Labor.

The present law was strengthened, the age limit advanced for illiterate children and night work prohibited. It met with no opposition from the manufacturers, but was passed with their approbation.

Board of Audit for Colored Orphanage.

This institution is a private one which has been receiving annual appropriations from the state and until recently the state had no representation on the board. It is the policy of the state to have directors on all boards of institutions where state money is given. Directors have been appointed also.

County Institutions.

Several additional counties were given permission to establish camps, and a number to build or remodel jails and homes

Private Societies.

A law was passed "to permit benevolent societies to purchase, receive, hold and sell personal and real property."

The vagrancy law, temperance and other measures conducive to good morals were strengthened.

Increased appropriations and additional improvements were made for most of the institutions.

NEEDS.

Our needs are as last reported, but I am happy to say that we shall soon meet them by establishing several new institutions and enlarging others—namely, more room for the insane, care of epileptics and the feeble-minded and a reform school for youthful delinquents.

We will still need much, especially classification, etc., of prisoners, but feel very hopeful of the development of our institutions along desirable lines.

REMARKS.

There is a lively interest felt in our institutions and the tendency is to state care for the indigent sufferers of all defective classes.

NORTH DAKOTA.

FRANK D. HALL, FARGO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS.

The new state school for blind will be completed in time for fall term. The blind children of the state are at present sent to the South Dakota state school at Gary.

Nineteen thousand five hundred dollars was appropriated for new building and land for state reform school, and $85,000 for new building and hospital ward for the state insane asylum.

Legislation.

The only charity legislation enacted since last report covers the usual biennial appropriations for maintenance and improvement of state institutions, and a measure empowering county commissioners to assign destitute and dependent juveniles to incorporated organizations for placing in family homes.

Needs.

Provision should be made by the state for destitute crippled children and for incurables under the age for admittance to existing institutions.

Remarks.

The population of the state is small, though growing very rapidly, and the principal occupation is agriculture. In comparison with the manufacturing states or mining states where strikes are frequent and accidental deaths frequent (the latter leaving dependent children to be cared for by the public), there is exceedingly little poverty or need for public support in North Dakota. The absence of the open saloon for many years has contributed largely to this prosperous condition. There are only about half a dozen almshouses (poorhouses) in the state, and less than 100 inmates of all classes in them, of whom but seventy-eight are adults.

There is a disposition in the state to care liberally for all classes of unfortunates.

OHIO.

H. H. SHIRER, SECRETARY BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

At the sixteenth annual State Conference, held at Marietta, there was a marked increase in attendance of persons connected with public institutions and boards, due to recent enactment of a law permitting the Board of State Charities to invite such persons to meet in annual conference, and authorizing the payment of their necessary expenses from any funds available for these institutions and boards.

Legislation.

No session of General Assembly since report was prepared for last year.

Needs.

It is the opinion of the Board of State Charities that there should be an act permitting a system of suspended sentence and probationary supervision of adult first offenders; a mandatory indeterminate sentence law applying to persons sentenced to the penitentiary, similar to the law relating to persons sentenced to the state reformatory; a system of well regulated after-care for the insane; the prohibition of practice of sentencing violators of state and municipal laws to county jails.

Remarks.

The commission to erect the Lima State Hospital (for insane criminals and dangerous insane) is securing information and developing plans for a modern institution of this type. Sufficient appropriation was made to purchase 650 acres of land, but there is nothing available for construction; consequently nothing can be done until 1908.

The commission to locate and erect an institution for the care, treatment and education of crippled and deformed children has not decided upon a site. The appropriation available is barely in excess of the amount necessary for a proper site. Construction can not begin until after next session of the General Assembly.

The supreme court during the last year declared unconstitutional the act passed in 1904, known as the blind allowance act, authorizing probate courts to issue orders in amounts not exceeding $25.00 per quarter, payable from county funds, for the relief of indigent blind who had been residents of the state for not less than five years. The arguments in this decision are of such a character that it will be difficult, if not impossible, to secure any form of legislation for special relief of the blind or any other class of dependents.

OREGON.

W. R. WALPOLE, PORTLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Reference is made below to the appropriation for the institution for the feeble-minded and epileptic.

The Visiting Nurse Association of Portland and the Associated Charities are planning definite work against tuberculosis. This will include systematic inspection of lodging houses, etc., which will more than likely lead to other reforms.

Legislation.

Since the last report Oregon has appropriated $140,000 for an institution for the feeble-minded and epileptic of the state. As previously stated, they are now kept in the asylum for the insane.

For the benefit of those states still working under the barbarous custom of transporting the insane to the hospitals in charge of the sheriff's officer, may we refer to the splendid working out of the law passed in 1905, requiring their transportation to the hospitals for the insane in care of asylum attendants. The saving to the state has been nearly two-thirds of the cost under the old system—to say nothing of the greater comfort to the patients.

Preliminary steps were begun looking towards establishing a reformatory for girls.

Juvenile court law amended to apply to the entire state, and the age limit raised from 16 to 18.

Bill for establishing a State Board of Charities and Correction never saw the light of day after it came up in the house.

Bill passed raising the age of consent to 18.

A "good time" law providing for credits earned by convicts; previously putting a man on good time was optional with the prison authorities. It is now compulsory and is in charge of an officer.

Bill passed creating the position of state parole officer, to whom is entrusted the care of men paroled under the indeterminate sentence act passed in 1905.

We were unsuccessful in preventing the addition of another huge wing to our already overgrown and outgrown asylum for the in-

sane—we have been working for the cottage system and modern methods of treating the insane, but so far we have been without any encouragement.

Wife-desertion law passed providing that a man convicted of deserting his wife and family shall be sent to the rock pile, or to such work as may be designated by the county, and for each day of the sentence worked out, the sum of $1.50 shall be paid to his family.

Needs.

One of our first needs is a State Board of Charities and Correction; there is no way of supervising public or private institutions, nor of correcting abuses until they have reached a magnitude that is almost disgraceful. Our public institutions are under the old political patronage system, with all that the system brings in its train.

Another need is the change from the congregate system in both reform school and asylum for the insane to the cottage system. Our new institution for the feeble-minded will be built under the latter system.

Remarks.

Since our experience with relief work among the San Francisco refugees, "Associated Charities" methods have gained many friends; many of the workers who went into the relief work full of enthusiasm and sentimentalism, changed their minds as to the necessity for investigation and careful consideration of cases.

Closer co-operation is the necessity—always the necessity—and to this end the Associated Charities of Portland has begun a series of monthly conferences among the charity workers of the city. At these meetings difficult cases are discussed, family histories studied in their relation to the general problem of relief, and if no other result is attained, the workers will know each other.

PENNSYLVANIA.

PROF. CARL KELSEY, PH. D., UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The commission appointed two years ago to find a site for a hospital for criminal insane recommended the acceptance of a site in the most northeasterly county, donated by the Delaware and

Hudson Railroad. The commission also asked for an appropriation for buildings to accommodate 1,000, although there are less than five hundred of the class in the state. The commission will probably be disbanded.

Legislation.

At this date (May 6) there is a bitter fight over the child labor bills before the legislature. This is also true of the bill to abolish the State Board of Commissioners of Public Charities and to establish a State Board of Control. To relieve overcrowding in the insane asylums the governor has just signed a bill allowing the transfer of patients from one hospital to another. A bill regulating labor agencies has been signed which, if enforced, will do much to mitigate the evils so widely prevalent.

Needs.

Colony for epileptics.
Institution for criminal insane.
Institutions for the tubercular.
More adequate provision for the insane.
Some system as to state subsidies.

Remarks.

In private charities perhaps the most important development is the union of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society and the Seybert Estate in the Children's Bureau. The Bureau is designed to correlate and extend the work of caring for dependent children.

The report of the state corresponding secretary for Pennsylvania must remain as heretofore very unsatisfactory owing to the absolute impossibility of getting the information desired. The report of the State Board of Commissioners of Public Charities for the year ending September 30, 1905, is not yet in the hands of the printer. This is due, in part, no doubt, to the death, during the year, of Mr. Cadwallader Biddle, who for many years has been the secretary of the board. Pressure was brought to bear to secure the appointment in Mr. Biddle's place of a trained and competent man. The board, however, saw fit to appoint a man without any previous experience in social or philanthropic work.

The most striking thing relative to the philanthropies of Penn-

sylvania is the steady growth of the subsidy system. For the years 1905 and 1906 the Legislature appropriated eleven million dollars, of which $5,816,929 was for state institutions, the balance going in subsidies. The institutions have this year applied for a total of over seventeen million dollars, of which four million dollars is applied for by state institutions. The board has recommended an appropriation of $12,765,000. It is impossible at this time to estimate the amount which will ultimately be appropriated, or the purposes for which such appropriations may be used. A bill has just been passed, and is now awaiting the governor's action, providing for a commission to investigate the condition of all charities receiving state appropriations and to make recommendations to the Legislature as to future action.

RHODE ISLAND.

FREDERIC BOWMAN, PROVIDENCE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Pure milk stations were established last summer by a committee of physicians at a cost of $1,000 only, a small fee being charged for the milk.

The Society for Organizing Charity and the District Nursery Association, at the instance of the Shepard Company, who furnished the funds last summer, distributed ice from five delivery stations to the poor.

Legislation.

An act passed in the General Assembly at the January session appropriating $15,000 "for the purchase of a suitable site and location for a school for feeble-minded and for the erection of buildings for its permanent occupancy."

Needs.

Greater provision for the care of tuberculosis patients. There are at least 1,000 cases which the sanitarium can not care for.

Remarks.

We have in Rhode Island a society for organizing charity with for its president W. H. P. Faunce (president of Brown Univer-

sity), which has relieved 2,018 cases of distress in the six years of its existence. Six hundred and ninety-nine cases were dealt with in 1906, of which 571 were new.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

A. T. JAMISON, GREENWOOD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The South Carolina Children's Home Society was organized at Columbia, S. C. Wm. B. Streeter is the state superintendent. This is a home-finding society, and "receives homeless white children under 15 years of age."

Legislation.

The State Legislature in 1906 appropriated $4,500 for the "South Carolina Industrial School." The governor, attorney-general, state superintendent of education and seven others are to constitute the board of trustees. The site has been selected at Florence, S. C., and 119 acres of land given by friends. White boys from 8 to 16 years of age may be committed by parents and guardians, or white boys from 8 to 16 years of age who have been tried and convicted of crime may be committed by the court. A plan for building has been adopted and some preliminary work has been done.

Remarks.

A strong sentiment has set in in this state against the influence of politics in the public institutions, and without doubt this sentiment will be crystallized into law at the next session of the Legislature.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

W. E. TIPTON, SECRETARY BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

No new institutions. Early in 1907, however, a State Conference of Charities and Correction was organized with over sixty members. The meeting was enthusiastic and promises well for the state.

Legislation.

None of importance within past year except age of consent for females was raised from the age of 16 years to 18 years.

TEXAS.

REV. R. C. BUCKNER, D. D., DALLAS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important act of our last Legislature was that which makes it a felony to sell intoxicating liquor in prohibition territory.

VERMONT.

REV. J. EDWARD WRIGHT, MONTPELIER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Our laws were improved by the Legislature of 1906 in regard to the employment and labor of children under sixteen; also in regard to the education of the deaf, dumb, blind and feeble-minded, under the direction of the governor of the state, as commissioner, with an enlarged appropriation for post-graduate training in cases approved by him.

Under local option in place of state prohibition, although only 28 of our 246 towns voted in favor of license in 1906, our house of correction at Rutland, and the county jail in Burlington, have been for years overcrowded. Burlington is soon to have a new and enlarged jail; and, for the relief of the house of correction, new laws provide that convicted tramps, drunkards and breakers of the peace shall be confined in the county jails, and that they may be required to perform manual labor within or without the jail walls for ten hours per day.

Remarks.

Increased attention is paid throughout the state to the requirements of our Board of Health, whose competence and energy deserve commendation.

VIRGINIA.

DR. WM. F. DREWRY, PETERSBURG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The Legislature has not been in session since last report.

New Developments.

An organization has been perfected looking to the establishment of a Home and Industrial School for Girls—on the order of a modern reformatory. A beautiful site near the city of Petersburg has been given to the association by Capt. John L. Roper, of Norfolk, president of the association. The institution will be supported in part by the state, and in part by private subscription.

Needs.

Colony for Epileptics.
Home and Industrial School (reformatory) for Girls.
Schools for the Feeble-Minded and Idiots.
State institution for consumptives.
State institution for the aged and infirm poor.
State institution for the colored deaf, dumb and blind.
State institution (or control) for inebriates.
Means of collecting and preserving statistics regarding all state, county, municipal and private institutions for the dependent and delinquent classes.
State Board of Charities.

Remarks.

The State Conference of Charities and Correction has been instrumental in having public attention directed to the need of a State Board of Charities; a state colony for epileptics; a home for friendless and incorrigible girls; organized charity in several cities; statistical information regarding the several dependent and delinquent classes, etc.

New interest has been aroused, particularly in epileptics, consumptives, feeble-minded, and homeless girls.

WASHINGTON.

MISS ANNA H. MURRAY, SEATTLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The Legislature which met last winter passed a number of important bills. A state reformatory was established to take care of criminals between the ages of sixteen and thirty. Reformatory methods are to be used, coupled with the indeterminate sentence. A law was also passed making it possible to apply the indeterminate sentence to the prisoners in the state penitentiary. The criminal insane were provided for by establishing a ward for their detention in connection with the state prison. A strong wife-desertion bill was passed making it a felony for a man to desert his wife or minor children in necessitous circumstances. It provides for a penalty of fine or imprisonment for not more than a year in the county jail or not more than three years in the state penitentiary; and also for suspension of the action or penalty during good behavior.

An adult delinquency law based on the Colorado statute, which was defeated in the Legislature two years ago, was passed this year and signed by the governor.

Provision was made for paying the salaries of probation officers of the juvenile court in cities having a population of 150,000.

A statute was passed making it unlawful for any telephone, telegraph or messenger company to employ as public messenger any child under nineteen years of age. A permanent commission was established to collect data concerning the blind of the state.

A pure food bill modeled on the federal statute was passed.

A unique park and playground law passed both houses, but was vetoed by the governor. It provided that in cities of the first and second class no plat of more than ten acres should be accepted unless it had, in addition to the prescribed streets and alleys, a plot set aside for playground of at least one-tenth the area of the lots and blocks.

WEST VIRGINIA.

R. H. BROWN, MORGANTOWN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The only new legislation had since our last report is the passage of a "child labor law." This law prohibits the employment of children under fourteen years of age during the school term, and of twelve years of age during vacation.

Needs.

A State Conference of Charities and Correction is badly needed. Also a state institution for the treatment of all tuberculosis cases.

Remarks.

No change noted the past year along the line of charitable organizations.

WISCONSIN.

M. J. TAPPINS, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CONTROL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

An additional appropriation of $30,000 has been made to complete the state tuberculosis sanitarium, and its current expenses have been provided for.

Provision for two new cottages and a custodial building to be erected at the cost of $140,000 for the Home for Feeble-Minded has been recommended by the committee on claims of the Legislature, and in all probability will pass.

An additional appropriation of $50,000 for a new cell wing at the state prison at Waupun has been made.

A general appropriation of $474,800 for special purposes has been recommended by the committee on claims, and in all probability will pass.

Legislation.

The Legislature of 1905 changed the ages of admission to the Industrial School for Boys at Waukesha from the ages of 10 to 18 to the ages of 8 to 16. The most important legislation relating to

matters of charities and correction is the sterilization bill, which provides for the sterilizing of certain grades of feeble-minded and chronic insane. This bill has passed the lower house. It is probable that this bill will pass. A law has been enacted during this session of the Legislature providing for the parole of prisoners after serving one-half of their full sentence term.

Needs.

Recommendations have been made to the Legislature for several sessions to appropriate sums for the erection of a separate building for the epileptic and criminal insane.

So far these recommendations have not been acted upon, and this may be said to be the one need that is recognized in connection with charitable and penal institutions to which the Legislature has not responded.

Remarks.

An increasingly liberal view of matters pertaining to care of defectives and delinquents is noticeable.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

REV. HUNTER BOYD, WAWEIG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

The municipal board of St. John has now sanctioned an annual grant towards the cost of the Associated Charities.

Legislation.

The Board of Associated Charities of St. John has secured an act of incorporation.

An act for compulsory education has now come into effect, and truant officers have been appointed in certain school districts.

Needs.

A children's protection act is sorely needed. There is ample legislation of this kind in Ontario and in other provinces, and it only requires the adoption and enforcement by our own Legislature.

Remarks.

The interest in manual training is now much stronger. There is to be an extension of the Normal College buildings at Fredericton to provide for the more efficient teaching of this subject, and the work is being introduced in several centers.

The provision of playgrounds has been made effective in St. John, and also the extension of free kindergarten schools.

A great deal of good work is accomplished by the churches in affording relief in various ways, and also by benevolent societies, but they refrain from publishing financial reports.

The Hebrew community also gives valuable assistance to their co-religionists.

ONTARIO.

DR. A. M. ROSEBRUGH, TORONTO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The government grant to the hospitals of Ontario has been fixed by the Provincial Legislature at twenty cents per day for each patient.

PUBLIC CARE OF THE TUBERCULAR.

The care of the tubercular is now being assumed as a function of public charity and should therefore be included in the reports from states. The information received is classified as follows:

Active state institutions are reported in Massachusetts, Missouri, and New York.

An institution with partial state support in Rhode Island.

State institutions are in process of erection in Iowa, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin and the District of Columbia.

Laws authorizing new or additional state institutions are reported from Indiana, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, North Carolina and Pennsylvania.

Special wards in connection with state institutions, such as hospitals for the insane, reported from California, Georgia, Iowa,

Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Virginia and the District of Columbia.

The following states report municipal or county institutions or detached wards in connection with public hospitals, etc.: Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio and Oregon.

Private charitable and other institutions are reported from California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Oregon, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia and Ontario, Can.

Private institutions with state subsidies are reported in Connecticut and Pennsylvania.

Free special dispensaries for the tubercular are reported in Delaware and Ohio.

From many other states come reports of associations or societies of various kinds and the existence of more or less active campaigns, some of which, as, for example, in Iowa and Vermont, are aided by state appropriations.

THE INEBRIATE.

While as a private enterprise the care of inebriety seems popular and probably remunerative, care of the inebriate is only attempted in a few states by either public or private charity.

The following instances are reported:

Indiana reports, males 16, in private institutions.

Iowa has a state institution with males 196, females 21; total 217 patients.

Kentucky reports 70 inmates in private institutions.

Maryland, males 35, females 5; total 40, in private institutions.

Massachusetts reports 109 patients in the Foxborough State Hospital for Inebriety and 22 women inebriates in hospitals for insane.

Minnesota reports males 36, females 5; total 41, in private institutions.

Oregon reports 7 inmates in private institutions.

Ontario, Can., reports 50 inmates in private institutions. The Ontario Society for the Reformation of Inebriates had 40 cases under treatment with the following result: Doing well, 39 per cent.; doing well when last heard from, 28 per cent.; doubtful or unknown, 33 per cent.

PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF.

The following reports have been received upon this topic:

CALIFORNIA.—No complete statistics are available in this state covering this question. Effort was made last year to get reports covering these expenditures, but one-third of the counties did not report and there is no law compelling such report.

Thirty-eight counties reported a total expenditure for the year for this purpose of $214,282.74. A fair estimate of the other eighteen counties would make about $320,000.

CONNECTICUT.—Total number of persons who received outdoor relief in 1906, not including those in asylums, hospitals, etc., was 11,898, of whom 4,630 were regular recipients of relief, and the remainder, 7,268, received assistance occasionally. The total number is about the same as recorded since 1900.

DELAWARE.—Spent for outside relief in Newcastle County during last fiscal year, $10,196.47, which is $157.99 less than last year.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—No public outdoor relief.

GEORGIA.—We have no means of ascertaining the extent of outdoor relief in the state. In Atlanta, the capital of the state, outdoor relief amounts to $2,000 per annum.

IDAHO.—It has not been tried in this state.

ILLINOIS.—There are no statistics available for the state. The following very interesting report of the Department of Poor Relief in Cook County (Chicago) is given:

Total expenditures	$89,951.38
Families given relief, including families of G. A. R. veterans under Bogardus law	6,216
Number of persons comprising these families	23,588
Number of visits made by department visitors	7,283
Persons placed in infirmary and consumptive hospital	2,306
Cases given medical aid—at dispensary, county jail, and juvenile detention home	12,989
Patients sent to Cook County hospital	788
Defectives, feeble-minded, blind, deaf and dumb sent to state institutions	93
Dependent children committed through juvenile court	623
Insane cases disposed of	1,607

Cases resident transportation disposed of	94
Nonresidents and aliens disposed of	265
Investigations applicants for admission to county institutions whose relatives were able to pay in part for their maintenance	44
Burials	71
Miscellaneous	37

INDIANA.—Outdoor poor relief in Indiana is in the hands of the township trustees, of whom there are 1,016. For the year ending December 31, 1906, these officials aided 38,612 persons (18,237 males and 20,375 females), and the value of the aid given amounted to $233,612.70. This is a reduction from the reports of the previous year of 6,719 in the number of persons aided, and $16,271.98 in the value of the relief. The twelve months ending December 31, 1906, concludes eleven years of state supervision of township poor relief. The average annual amount of relief given in that period was $287,439. Figures for the same length of time prior to 1896 can not be given, but they are available for four years: 1891, $560,012; 1893, $511,503; 1894, $586,232; 1895, $630,168.

IOWA.—There is a growing appreciation of the fact that public outdoor relief has generally been badly managed. The amount remains stationary in almost every county. Polk county (Des Moines) affords some interesting information. Under a new overseer, cases have been carefully investigated and kept under supervision, with the result of a reduction of $4,899.60 per year in amount and the number of families aided has dropped from 490 to 252. Many families that have made a practice of living off the county during the winter months have found out that they can and must earn their own living.

KENTUCKY.—The principal item of outdoor relief is the support by the state of idiots, either in their own homes or in almshouses, etc., at a cost last year of $165,241.15, which is five times the cost of the Institution for Feeble-Minded. This method of supporting idiots is unknown outside of Kentucky.

LOUISIANA.—There is no official outdoor relief.

MARYLAND.—Practically none.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The cost of partial support per inhabitant is reported as $0.54 in 1878, $0.38 in 1879, and $0.39 in 1906,

The approximate average number of persons receiving partial support increased between 1886 and 1906, from 16,501 to 19,241. The population of the state in 1885 was 1,942,141; in 1905 it was 3,003,680. The number of cases of vagrancy in all the cities and towns during the year 1886 was 134,167. It reached its highest in 1895 with 304,244, and by very much its lowest in 1906, 44,063. This very low number represents a very considerable actual falling off, due to stricter enforcement of the vagrancy laws and to good times. In some part, however, it represents the closing of tramp houses by the cities and towns, owing to a law requiring better sanitary provisions in these. The Salvation Army is still the great obstacle to the radical reduction of the evil.

MINNESOTA.—In 1906 $129,000 (estimated). Exact figures were had for sixty-one counties. In about three-quarters of the counties in the state, poor relief is administered by the county board; in the other counties it is entrusted to the town and city boards. The work is better done where the county boards attend to it.

MISSOURI.—We have no public outdoor relief in large cities. Each county in the state gives on an average of $1,000 a year, which the State Board of Charities hopes to have supervision over and to induce the county court to make thorough investigation for all applying for relief, before giving any aid.

NEBRASKA.—There are no statistics of outdoor relief for the state at large. Outdoor relief is disbursed by the boards of county commissioners. The amount is probably small and not increasing. Lancaster county, including the city of Lincoln, which has a population of 50,000, appropriates $3,000 for this purpose, which is approximately the amount spent.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—1901, $170,893.57; 1902, $209,861.38; 1903, $241,821.17; 1904, $239,901.46; 1905, $244,445.70; 1906, $223,465.20.

NEW YORK.—During the year ending September 30, 1905, public outdoor relief was granted to 152,698 persons at a cost of $807,603.15, denoting a decrease over the previous year. The adoption of more careful methods seems to avert the increase of outdoor relief.

NORTH CAROLINA.—Outdoor relief to 3,620 at a cost of $77,828.46; cost of maintenance of 1,375 inmates of homes, $80,803.20; total of poor aided, 4,995; total cost, $158,631.66. Cost of inmates in the homes is exclusive of farm products. Figures are more nearly correct than heretofore, only four out of ninety-seven counties failing to report. I believe that much of the outdoor relief might be cut off with advantage to the poor. Just enough is given to weaken self-respect and encourage dependence. It also diverts funds from the proper upbuilding of the county homes. On the surface it appears cheaper because the per capita cost is less than in the homes, but it is false economy, as so many more persons apply for aid, and persons who might retain their position by slight aid through private agencies in the time of need are pauperized.

NORTH DAKOTA.—No outdoor relief given or needed, so far as can be learned.

OHIO.—Outdoor relief by township trustees was extended to 42,194 persons at a cost of $278,841.56. The county infirmary directors extended outdoor relief to 13,402 persons at a cost of $230,805.18. These figures show no marked deviation from similar statistics for recent years.

OREGON.—The only statistics available as to outdoor relief are those of Multnomah County (Portland), where it is on the increase. In 1900 the direction of relief cases was turned over to the Associated Charities, and there was a marked decrease until there was a change in the administration of the County Relief office. Since that time there has been a steady though slight increase. Just about the time a man becomes educated up to his work his term ends and again is begun the weary struggle against sentimentality and the reckless use of public funds. In addition, the whole coast region is being traveled by an army of derelicts from the San Francisco disaster, for whom each community will be forced to provide until the story of the earthquake is old and worn out and no longer serves to draw money from the pockets of the credulous and sympathetic. Again, the extensive advertising of the resources of the coast country by the railroads and development companies is bringing to this section, in addition to the real set-

tlers, the driftwood of the south and middle west who expect to find a ready-made Eldorado, and who land here with scarcely a month's rent ahead. Until their adjustment takes place, they must be cared for. Their poverty and distress appeal to the new county agent, and until experience teaches him to recognize underlying causes, outdoor relief is "on the increase."

PENNSYLVANIA.—According to report for year ending September 30, 1905, there were given outdoor relief: Males, 4,151; females, 8,674; total, 12,825; sex not stated, 17,216; grand total, 30,041. No one knows anything about the tendency in the state.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Little relief given and little needed in this state.

WASHINGTON.—The information I have been able to gather about outdoor relief is so fragmentary as to be of little value. Most of the county officers either keep no statistics that are easily available or they are not willing to take the trouble to look them up.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The only outdoor relief given in this state is done through the religious and charitable organizations. This seems to be on the increase in various parts of the state.

WISCONSIN.—The amount of public outdoor relief seems to be about stationary. Probably a slight decrease is noticeable when compared with proportional increase of population.

CANADA (New Brunswick).—There is not very much poverty in the province. The various parishes render assistance from the poor rates, but in as quiet manner as possible, and little attention is directed to these circumstances. There is much good accomplished by persons who strive to keep individuals "off the rates." The Salvation Army has done excellent work in St. John. The same may be said of the Seaman's Mission Society.

STATE CONFERENCES OF CHARITIES

and similar meetings are reported as planned or projected for the following states:

CALIFORNIA.—Miss C. A. Whitney, Secretary Associated Charities, Oakland; time and place not yet announced.

COLORADO.—In Denver, autumn of 1907; precise date to be decided. Secretary, Mrs. S. Pisko, 1220 Corona St., Denver.

DELAWARE.—No State Conference this year, but several public meetings have been held in the interest of the juvenile court, the blind, the tubercular and the Consumers' League.

GEORGIA.—We have no State Conference of Charities, but steps will be taken for the establishment of one at the next session of the State Legislature, which meets in June, 1907.

ILLINOIS.—The next meeting will be in Jacksonville in the autumn of 1907; the exact date is not yet fixed.

INDIANA.—The sixteenth annual meeting of the State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in Evansville, Ind., October 19-23, 1907. Eugene H. Iglehart, Evansville, Secretary.

IOWA.—The State Conference of Charities and Correction will meet this year in September, the place of meeting not having been determined. Prof. F. I. Herriott of Drake University is President and Clarence Wassam of Iowa City is Secretary.

KANSAS.—Secretary, F. W. Knapp, Topeka; time and place not given.

KENTUCKY.—The State Conference will meet in November at Frankfort. Mrs. Charlotte O. Woodbury, Louisville, is Secretary.

MARYLAND.—Secretary H. Wirt Steele, 101 W. Saratoga St., Baltimore; next meeting, Baltimore, in the spring of 1908.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The next State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in Lynn, November 13-15, 1907.

MICHIGAN.—The twenty-fifth annual Michigan State Conference of Charities and Correction was held at Kalamazoo in December, 1906. The place and date of the next meeting have not yet been determined.

MINNESOTA.—The sixteenth annual Conference will be held at Fergus Falls in November, 1907. Mr. E. D. Solenberger, Court House, Minneapolis, is Secretary.

MISSOURI.—The eighth annual meeting of the Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in October, 1907, in Marshall. Mr. John B. Quinn, Board of Education, St. Louis, is Secretary.

NEBRASKA.—Time and place of the meeting of the State Conference not yet determined. J. A. Piper, State Capitol, Lincoln, Secretary.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The New Hampshire State Conference of Charities and Correction was organized in Concord by the State Board of Charities and Correction in February, 1899. It meets in Concord biennially, during the session of the Legislature, and alternate years in different towns and cities throughout the state. The last meeting was held in Concord February 19, 1907. Secretary, Miss Caroline E. Evans. Concord.

NEW YORK.—The eighth State Conference meets in Albany, November 14-16, 1907. Secretary, Walter E. Kruesi, 105 East Twenty-second St., New York City.

OHIO.—The seventeenth annual State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held at Bellefontaine October 22-25, 1907. Superintendent James A. Leonard of the Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield is President and H. H. Shirer, Columbus, Secretary of the Board of State Charities, is ex officio Secretary of the State Conference.

OREGON.—The Oregon State Conference of Charities and Correction has held no meeting since 1904. Secretary, Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, 305 Jefferson St., Portland.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Association of Directors of the Poor meets annually.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Early in 1907 a State Conference of Charities and Correction was organized with over sixty members. The meeting was enthusiastic and promises well for the State. Date of next meeting, April, 1908; place, Redfield. W. E. Tipton, Mitchell, Secretary.

VIRGINIA.—We have a very well organized Conference. Meets next December in Roanoke. George B. Davis, Richmond, Secretary. W. F. Drewry, M. D., Petersburg, President.

WISCONSIN.—We have no State Conference, but a County Asylum Superintendents' Association, of which Henry Wernecke, of Manitowoc, is Secretary; meeting, June 4-6, 1907, at Racine.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DESTITUTES. (ADULTS.)

State.	Aged and Infirm.						Sick and Injured.					
	In Public Institutions.			In Private Homes for Aged.			In Public Hospitals.			In Private Charitable Hospitals.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	3,430	500	3,930	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	.....	.....	*2,340	.....	.....	469	.....	.....	1,032	.....	.....	.....
Delaware	*115	40	155	47	111	158	19	11	30	.....	.....	.....
District of Columbia	132	84	216	130	400	*530	308	254	562	52	48	*100
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	16	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	51
Georgia	476	633	1,109	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Idaho	4	0	4	1	5	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	2,173	943	3,116	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	995	382	1,377	275	350	*625	88	71	159	175	150	*325
Iowa	752	356	1,108	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	.....	.....	531	.....	.....	119	.....	.....	120	.....	.....	278
Louisiana	104	117	221	.....	.....	554	466	179	645	.....	.....	.....
Maine	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	760	335	530	865	.....	.....	442	.....	.....	1,650
Massachusetts	.....	.....	*15,619	.....	.....	**2,600	.....	.....	***800	.....	.....	**2,500
Michigan	4,585	1,645	6,230	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	423	89	512	514	243	757	.....	.....	320	.....	.....	123
Missouri	516	248	764	277	507	784	658	68	726	.....	.....	.....
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	394	178	572	111	170	*281	.....	.....	.....	32	49	81
New Jersey	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

New York	5,209	3,358	*8,567	2,889	3,718	†6,607	2,544	1,362	3,906	5,673	5,759	†11,432
North Carolina	.....	.....	*631	.....	45	45	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**
North Dakota	32	10	42	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*	*	*
Ohio	4,024	2,146	6,170	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	116	5	*121	8	32	**40	99	12	111	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania	5,200	2,656	**8,193	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*7,700	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	227	267	464	186	100	286	218	160	378	.....	.....	.....
South Carolina	29	28	57	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
South Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Texas*	300	450	750	1	40	41	200	300	500	75	100	175
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	.....	.....	.....	25	65	*90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Virginia	.....	.....	*	.....	.....	*	.....	.....	*	.....	.....	*
Washington	169	14	*183	402	59	461	219	28	257	73	30	103
West Virginia	930	591	1,521	20	39	59	137	2	139	227	189	*416
Wisconsin	1,116	407	1,523	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
British Columbia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Brunswick	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	84	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	.....	.....	1,290	.....	.....	2,942	.....	.....	3,026	.....	.....	.....
Quebec	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

NOTES ON ADULT DESTITUTES.

Connecticut — * Est.
District of Columbia — * Est.
Florida — No almshouse inmates.
Indiana — * Est.
Massachusetts — * 1,259 of these are in the state hospital almshouse and pauper inmates of the state farm.
** Est.
*** Est. in Boston City Hospital.
New Hampshire — * Including 72 in Soldiers' Home.
New York — * Besides these there are m. 2,292, f. 136, t. 2,428 in the State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home.
** Of these 1,369 are in institutions receiving partial public support.
† Includes m. 4,582, f. 4,444, t. 9,026, in institutions receiving partial public support.
North Carolina — * Also 120 in State Soldiers' Home.
** There are 34 private and municipal hospitals in the state, but accurate statistics are not received from them.
North Dakota — * "None so far as can be learned."
Oregon — * A number of counties are without any institutions, when occasional pauper cases arise they are given outdoor relief or boarded out, or sent to a hospital in some other county.
** Statistics are incomplete.
Pennsylvania — * Est.
** The Soldiers' and Sailors' Home has 517 inmates.
Vermont — * Last year's figures.
Virginia — * The State Conference is making an effort to secure the information sought by the National Conference.
Washington — * Reports for 13 counties out of 36, but they are the most important ones. One county reports "no almshouse and no inhabitant supported by private charity."
West Virginia — * Est.
Texas — * Estimated figures.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DESTITUTES. (JUVENILE.)

State.	In Public Institutions for Juvenile Dependents.			In Private Institutions with Public Support in Whole or Part.			In Private Charitable Institutions.			In Almshouses.			Children Placed Out During Year.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama															
Arkansas	*														
California				2,757	2,494	5,251				7	12	19			
Colorado	129	73	202												
Connecticut			812			81			1,002	28	35	62			884
Delaware				35	39	74	261	43	303	3		3			
District of Columbia	255	148	403	233	142	375	300	375	*675				340	233	**573
Florida									180						42
Georgia	*101	103	204				594	588	1,182						
Idaho				5	4	9									
Illinois										59	40	99			1,380
Indiana	712	484	1,196	706	355	1,061	420	325	*745	14	13	27			744
Iowa			1,066												747
Kansas	128	39	167												
Kentucky			30			20	440	409	849			254			252
Louisiana						2,175									
Maine															
Maryland						1,940			300			22			160
Massachusetts			*3,089			107			**3,200			124			*
Michigan	152	25	177				1,046	1,409	2,455						*3,129
Minnesota	131	66	*197				759	744	**1,503	3	0	†3			604
Missouri						112	915	108	2,004			15			380
Montana															
Nebraska	47	47	94				213	191	404						

New Hampshire				205	152	357	423	407	830	19	27	46	51	36	78
New Jersey															
New Mexico															
New York	159	154	313	15,232	12,962	28,194	1,583	1,637	**3,220	28	30	58	3,102	2,376	5,478
North Carolina			34			383			915			*70			**129
North Dakota	*	*	*				76	54	130	15	3	18			66
Ohio	1,177	784	1,961	137	98	235				144	96	240	968	644	1,612
Oklahoma															
Oregon				35	40	75	63	136	199				127	153	280
Pennsylvania						17,000						*363			76
Rhode Island	114	50	164	456	121	577									
South Carolina			237			60			750						
South Dakota							20	12	32						
Texas *	225	375	600				500	1,500	2,000				75	200	275
Utah															
Vermont						*164	132	49	*181						
Virginia															
Washington							99	156	255		2	2	191	95	286
West Virginia	12	8	20	31	35	66	71	29	100	20	16	36			
Wisconsin	85	55	140							6	4	10	214	158	372
British Columbia															
New Brunswick															
Ontario						1,956									
Quebec															

NOTES ON JUVENILE DESTITUTES.

Arkansas — * Counties take care of poor and destitute either on county farm or let out to some capable person.

District of Columbia — * Estimated.
** Includes only children placed out by public institutions.

California — * Statistics are estimated.

Indiana — * Est.

Massachusetts — * Boarded out, 560 by cities and towns, 2,529 by state, 56 of these are "reformatory children."
** Estimated.

Michigan — * Of tnis number 2,168 were returned to parents or guardians.

Minnesota — * 63 children in the State hospital for crippled and deformed children.
** Includes 243 Indian children cared for by the charity of whites.
† Transients.

New York — ** This number is estimated.

North Carolina — * Children in almshouses are generally infants with their mothers, or cripples or imbecile.

North Dakota — * None in state.

Pennsylvania — * Including defective children.

Texas — * Estimated figures.

Vermont — * Last year's figures.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DEFECTIVE ADULTS.

State.	The Insane.												The Epileptic.					
	In State Hospitals.			In Municipal and County Institutions.			In Private Institutions.			In Almshouses.			In State Institutions for Epileptics and Feeble-Minded.			In Almshouses.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama																		
Arkansas			*900															
California	2,625	2,145	5,770										*	*	*	34	6	40
Colorado	518	273	791															
Connecticut	1,266	1,391	2,657						268			213	*		64			21
Delaware	217	179	*396													4	2	6
Dist. of Columbia	678	624	1,302										*					
Florida																		
Georgia	1,201	1,331	2,532										180	132	312			
Idaho	179	114	293										13	14	*27			
Illinois	4,898	4,495	9,393							327	290	617				85	74	159
Indiana	1,957	2,116	4,073	114	59	173	25	30	55	274	123	397	341	331	*672	139	109	248
Iowa	2,162	1,673	3,835	467	463	930	213	357	570				*	*	*	34	36	70
Kansas	1,370	967	2,337										231	124	355	†	†	†
Kentucky	1,818	1,495	3,313															
Louisiana	1,063	625	1,688	37	52	89												
Maine	562	468	1,030															
Maryland	702	529	1,231	159	185	344	321	504	825	255	360	615			*			
Massachusetts	4,538	4,865	**9403	301	407	708	101	159	260				616	456	*1072			
Michigan			5,271			508			303			65			*			
Minnesota	2,377	1,821	4,198	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	115	117	232	†	†	†
Missouri	2,147	1,756	3,903	342	261	603				354	529	883	*	*	*			
Montana																		
Nebraska			1,723															

New Hampshire..	356	310	566	59	147	**206	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18	9	*25	24	34	58
New Jersey.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	12,289	13,987	26,276	.....	.....	.....	353	609	962	.....	.....	.....	577	476	1,053	160	139	299
North Carolina...	878	1,244	2,122	.....	.....	.....	10	10	20	.....	.....	152	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	121
North Dakota...	331	168	499	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	5	9	23	11	**34	.....	.....	.....
Ohio.....	5,112	4,707	*9,819	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	183	91	274	755	614	1,369	64	32	96
Oklahoma.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon.....	973	460	1,433	.....	.....	.....	9	11	†20	.....	.....	.....	*	*	*	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania....	4,494	3,632	**8126	2,795	2,441	5,236	312	475	787	209	153	362	*	*	*	226	150	376
Rhode Island....	525	479	1,004	74	96	170	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
South Carolina...	600	731	1,331	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*69	.....	.....	.....
South Dakota....	426	242	668	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*	*	*	.....	.....	.....
Texas *.....	1,430	1,455	2,885	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont.....	286	250	536	.....	.....	.....	358	270	*628	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Virginia.....	1,563	1,638	*3,201	.....	.....	.....	10	4	14	†	†	†	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington.....	911	436	1,347	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2	53	40	* 93	.....	.....	.....
West Virginia....	836	785	1,621	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	32	27	59	16	8	24
Wisconsin.....	1,020	660	1,680	2,455	1,695	4,150	.....	.....	*	.....	.....	†	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
British Columbia.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Brunswick..	2,660	234	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ontario.....	2,491	2,720	5,211	.....	.....	.....	11	20	37	.....	.....	.....	32	26	58	.....	.....	.....
Quebec.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

NOTES ON DEFECTIVES. (ADULT.)

Arkansas — * All insane, f., m. and epi. are in one institution called The Hospital for Nervous Disease.
California — * In inst. with f. m.
Connecticut — * 119 epileptic in St. Hosp. for ins.
Delaware — * 13 were in tuberculosis building.
District of Columbia — * With insane.
Idaho — * These are in st. inst. for ins.
Indiana — *These are in the st. hosp. for ins. and the school for f. m. and are enumerated with other inmates.
Iowa — * With f. m. no separate figures.
Maryland — * In hospital for insane.
Massachusetts — ** Includes m. 13, f. 272, t. 285, who are boarded out in family care.
* This includes 160 who are in the inst. for f. m. and 381 who are in the insane hospitals and asylums. There are also two epileptics boarded out in family care and 12 in private institutions
Michigan — * With f. m. no separate figures.
Missouri — * With f. m. no separate figures.
New Hampshire — * Of these 6 are in the sch. for f. m. and 19 in the hosp. for ins.
** Insane paupers are being gradually transferred to hosp. or insane, they must all be transferred by Jan. 1, 1909.
North Dakota — ** In same inst. with f. m.
Ohio — * About 250 are epileptic.
Oregon — * Epileptics as well as f. m. are kept in asylum for ins.
† There are several private institutions for insane but only one gave statistics.
Pennsylvania — * With f. m.
** *** of these 258 are insane convicts and 178 criminal ins.
South Carolina — * These are in the st. hosp. for ins.
South Dakota — * Some epi. in st. sch. for f. m.
Texas — * Estimated figures.
Vermont — * Of these m. 146, f. 102, t. 248 are maintained at st. expense.
Virginia — * Of these m. 566, f. 652, t. 1,218 are colored.
Washington — * These are in hospital for insane and inst. for f. m.
Wisconsin — * No statistics available.
† None in Wisconsin

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DEFECTIVES.

State.	Idiots and Feeble-Minded.						Blind.									Deaf Mute.					
	In State Institutions.			In Almshouses.			In State Schools.			In Working Homes.			In Almshouses.			In State Schools.			In Almshouses.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	80	*170	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	319	257	*576	78	25	103	41	32	73	81	22	103	105	7	112	73	74	147	62	2	64
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	83	64	*147	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*	*	*	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	.....	.....	188	.....	.....	96	22	23	45	15	5	20	.....	.....	.....	115	81	196	.....	.....	.....
Delaware	8	4	*12	13	11	24	3	1	**4	.....	.....	.....	2	3	5	6	9	†15	2	7	5
District of Columbia	.....	.....	*56	.....	.....	.....	10	9	19	.....	.....	**20	.....	.....	.....	29	26	55	.....	.....	.....
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	16	32	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28	28	56	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	27	11	38	.....	.....	.....	39	11	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	166	34	200	.....	.....	.....
Idaho	5	2	*7	.....	.....	.....	6	6	**12	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	12	13	**25	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	680	590	*1,270	242	282	524	121	74	195	50	18	68	74	37	111	267	159	426	19	13	32
Indiana	457	566	*1,023	472	422	894	57	71	128	20	....	20	125	60	185	172	153	325	36	35	71
Iowa	587	480	**1,067	175	156	331	104	84	188	.....	.....	.....	40	16	56	139	121	260	8	13	21
Kansas	199	140	339	.....	.....	.....	52	49	101	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	123	126	249	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	.....	.....	*2,276	.....	.....	40	79	65	144	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	358	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28	19	47	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	146	.....	.....	.....
Maine	5	4	*9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**28	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	102	99	201	50	27	77	69	58	129	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	70	40	110	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts	676	461	*1,137	97	94	191	.....	.....	†250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**250	.....	.....	.....
Michigan	.....	.....	650	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	114	.....	.....	78	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	351	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	509	419	928	.....	.....	*15	54	36	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*12	159	131	290	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	216	215	**431	.....	.....	.....	45	54	99	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	236	144	380	.....	.....	.....
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	223	179	402	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	49	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	191	.....	.....	.....

New Hampshire	44	40	84	110	120	230	11	10	21	....	....	....	3	2	5	18	15	33	4	2	6
New Jersey	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
New York	761	1,125	1,886	908	690	1,598	160	126	*286	83	51	134	209	178	387	894	755	**1,649	57	42	99
North Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	401	125	121	246	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	167	142	309	.....	.....	....
North Dakota	39	31	79	.....	.....	.....	7	6	*13	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28	36	64	.....	.....	**14
Ohio	781	619	1,400	352	171	523	181	132	313	.....	.....	.....	136	69	205	310	257	567	66	32	98
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
Oregon	65	60	*125	5	1	6	25	16	41	.....	.....	.....	3	....	3	40	32	72	.....	.....	....
Pennsylvania	1,272	903	*2,175	.....	.....	26	147	156	303	131	75	206	139	84	223	449	403	852	52	35	87
Rhode Island	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	38	34	72	.....	.....	....
South Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	74	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	....
South Dakota	61	54	115	.....	.....	.....	25	12	37	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	36	29	65	.....	.....	....
Texas*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	150	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	300	500	.....	.....	....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
Vermont	.....	.....	*16	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*20	.....	.....	....
Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
Washington	95	61	156	.....	.....	.....	32	38	70	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	83	78	161	.....	.....	....
West Virginia	64	55	119	20	18	38	24	26	50	.....	.....	.....	2	1	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
Wisconsin	364	376	*740	25	15	40	50	43	93	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	70	160	.....	.....	....
British Columbia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28	....	28	18	12	30	103	81	189	24	16	40
New Brunswick	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....
Ontario	376	385	761	.....	.....	.....	163	120	283	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	239	204	443	.....	.....	....
Quebec	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....

NOTES ON DEFECTIVES.

Arkansas — *Males, white 65, colored 25; females, white 70, colored 10.
California — * Including epi.
Colorado — * Blind and deaf together.
Delaware — *Maintained at st. expense, at Elwynn, Pa.
** Maintained at st. expense, at Overbrook, Pa.
† Maintained at st. expense, at Mt. Airy, Pa., and Columbian Inst., D. of C.
District of Columbia — * At Elwyn, Pa., and Falls Church, Va.
** Est.
Idaho — * In State Hospital for Insane.
** Blind and deaf school opened last year.
Illinois — *Including epi.
Indiana — * Including epi.
Iowa — ** Including epi.
Kentucky — *This number includes a large number supported in their homes by the state.
Maine — * These are maintained by the State in the Massachusetts School.
** Maintained by the State in Perkins Institute, Boston.
Massachusetts — * These figures include the feeble minded epileptic. Besides these there are m. 46, f. 13, t. 59 in private institutions.
† In Perkins Inst. partly state and partly private, at State expense.
** In private schools at State expense.
Minnesota — *Old and senile.
Missouri — ** F. m. and epi. together.
New York — * Of these 156 are in private institutions with public support.
** Pupils in private institutions at public expense.
North Dakota — * These are in the South Dakota School for Blind at expense of State of North Dakota.
** In almshouse and private homes.
Oregon — * In asylums for insane, including epi.
Pennsylvania — * These are in subsidized institutions under private control.
Texas — * Estimated figures.
Vermont — * Supported in institutions outside the state, annual appropriation for the purpose, $20,000.
Wisconsin — * Including epileptics.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

ADULT DELINQUENTS.

State.	Criminals (Felons.)									Vicious (Misdemeanants.)					
	In State Prisons.			In Reformatories for Adults.			In County Prisons.			In Jails Waiting Trial.			In Jails and Workhouses under Sentence.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	*827	†20	847	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	2,543	26	2,569	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	290	14	304	808	31	*839
Colorado	587	15	602	159	.....	159	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	508	14	522	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,009
Delaware	.....	.....	*306	.....	9	**9	.....	.....	.....	34	3	37	95	19	114
District of Columbia	332	12	*344	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	70	10	80	530	119	649
Florida	.....	.....	*1,686	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	2,259	85	2,344	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,830	134	1,964
Idaho	†227	5	232	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*42	1	53	22	0	22
Illinois	2,623	64	2,687	1,094	.....	1,094	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	411	19	430
Indiana	950	52	1,002	1,093	.....	1,093	.....	.....	.....	288	12	300	*630	66	696
Iowa	889	17	906	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*	.....	.....
Kansas	1,203	32	1,235	355	.....	355	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	.....	.....	3,291	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*235	.....	.....	344
Louisiana	1,650	59	1,709	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40	19	*59	.....	.....	.....
Maine	509	14	*523	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	83	8	†91	*	.....	.....
Maryland	940	78	1,018	.....	.....	.....	340	40	380	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*1,040
Massachusetts	848	.....	848	911	180	991	1,029	44	1,073	341	71	412	2,340	383	2,723
Michigan	1,008	.....	.....	542	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	383	66	*449
Minnesota	681	12	692	300	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	175	5	*176	238	24	262
Missouri	2,067	54	2,121	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	249	11	*260	523	76	599
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	329	9	338	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	156	4	160	237	22	*259	.....	.....	.....	148	6	154	.....	.....	.....

New Jersey															
New York	3,381	85	3,466	1,530	444	1,974	1,798	180	*1,978	898	92	†990	2,462	734	3,196
North Carolina †	618	38	656				1,039		*1,039	*	*	*	329	54	†385
North Dakota	256	3	259												
Ohio	1,481	45	1,526	774		774	1,017	180	*1,197	363	52	**415	145	21	166
Oklahoma															
Oregon	459	2	461												
Pennsylvania	2,014	42	2,056	730		730	1,224	313	1,537	61		*61	34		*34
Rhode Island	118		118				261	15	276	976	111	1,087	1,684	353	2,037
South Carolina													206	59	275
South Dakota			716												
Texas *	165	4	169												
Utah			4,000			300									
Vermont															
Virginia			*180	185	27	*215			*						
Washington *	1,263	73	1,336			*	394		*394			*25			*27
West Virginia	826	10	836												
Wisconsin	1,240	33	1,273							91	4	95	173	15	188
	618	25	643	276		276	54	16	70	284	33	*317	290	40	330
New Brunswick										280	10	290	415	43	458
Ontario			212												
Quebec	1,067	74	1,141		57	57				133		‡309			
												133			

‡ Insane.

NOTES ON STATISTICS OF ADULT DELINQUENTS.

Arkansas — * Males in Pen. 216 white, 611 colored.
† Colored.

California — * Besides these there are in jails 77 m., 1 f., sentenced to state prison; in the case of some an appeal is pending; also 26 persons detained as witnesses and 22 insane.

Florida — * Prisoners worked under the open air system. State prisoners are leased to the highest bidder. Under this lease they are worked on turpentine farms and in mining phosphate.

Delaware — ** In Crittendon Home for Fallen Women.
* Still called New Castle Co. Workhouse.

District of Columbia — * Convicts are kept under contract at Moundsville, W. Va.

Idaho — * Of these 5 are insane and 10 are detained for other reasons.
† Statistics are incomplete.

Indiana — *Tramps in 92 Co. jails and one workhouse during year m. 3318, f. 61, t. 3379.

Iowa — * No jail statistics available.

Kentucky — * Includes 7 witnesses and 2 insane. These figures are for 53 of the 119 counties, the smaller ones not reporting.

Louisiana — * These are persons detained as insane. No statistics of other jail inmates.

Maine — * This number includes those under sentence in jail.
† Includes 3 detained a witnesses.

Maryland — * Est.

Michigan — * This is the number in the Detroit House of Correction, not all "minor offenders," no figures for the county jails are available.

Minnesota — * Est. daily average number of tramp lodgers for year, 6.

Missouri — *These figures are for St. Louis alone.

New Hampshire — * This figure includes those serving sentences in workhouses and county prisons.

New York — * These are prisoners in the county penitentiaries.
† These include 43 witnesses and 15 debtors; no record of insane, if any.

North Carolina — *The No. in Co. camps.
† Includes all jail inmates, those waiting trial and those sentenced; among them are 36 insane.

Ohio — * Number in workhouses.
** Ins. 32, witnesses 7.

Oregon — * Records incomplete.

Texas — * Estimated figures.

Vermont — * Last year's figures; they are as good an estimate as can be made.

Virginia — * At State Farm, on public roads, etc.

Washington — * Statistics for 22 counties out of 36.

West Virginia — * Includes 8 witnesses and 4 insane.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

JUVENILE INSUBORDINATES.

State.	In Public Institutions.			In Private Institutions.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	.....	.....	*	.....	.....	.....
California	431	31	462	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	320	43	363	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	434	268	702	.....	52	52
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	96	37	*133
District of Columbia	196	87	283	.....	.....	.....
Florida	58	6	64	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	71	0	71	.....	.....	.....
Idaho	46	17	63	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	213	336	551	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	568	260	828	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	478	222	700	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	479	180	659	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	298	148	446	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	78	0	78	.....	.....	.....
Maine	131	89	220	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	.....	1,030	545	**1,575
Massachusetts	345	221	566	.....	.....	.....
Michigan	745	301	1,046	.....	148	148
Minnesota	265	88	353	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	491	152	643	141	41	182
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	226	75	301	.....	*130	130
New Hampshire	119	29	148	.....	21	21
New Jersey	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New York	1,159	312	1,471	2,528	559	3,087
North Carolina	.....	.....	*95	.....	.....	.....
North Dakota	33	2	35	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	1,001	411	1,412	.....	.....	.....
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	127	.....	127	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania	1,095	224	**1,319	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	350	45	395	.....	.....	.....
South Carolina	.....	.....	72	.....	.....	.....
South Dakota	55	10	65	.....	.....	.....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont *	113	32	145	.....	.....	.....
Virginia	204	.....	*204	.....	.....	.....
Washington	154	35	189	.....	.....	.....
West Virginia	253	72	325	48	243	291
Wisconsin	315	225	540	.....	.....	.....
New Brunswick	.....	.....	22	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Quebec	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

NOTES ON STATISTICS OF JUVENILE INSUBORDINATES

Arkansas — * Institution just erected will soon open, will be a reform school for persons under 18.

Delaware — * These are in the Ferris Industrial School for Boys and the Delaware Industrial School for girls, private institutions with public support.

Maryland — ** With public support.

Nebraska — *Est.

North Carolina — * These are in state prison, jails and convict camps, a reform school for children under 16 is to be establisned thi year.

Pennsylvania — ** These are in institutions under private control but supported by the State.

Vermont — * Last year's figures.

Virginia — * In addition there are 125 col. juvenile offenders in the public reformatory state farm.

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS

OF THE

Thirty-fourth
National Conference of Charities and Correction,

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

OPENING MEETING.

Wednesday, June 12, 8 p. m.

The Conference was called to order by Mr. Wallace G. Nye, Secretary of the Local Committee.

After invocation by Bishop S. C. Edsall.

MR. NYE—Owing to the illness of President Gardner of our Commercial Club, it has become my privilege and honor to represent upon this occasion the local committee, to preside over this gathering for a few moments, and to introduce those who will officially welcome this Conference to this city. Speaking for the local committee, I want to say that they have willingly planned for the coming of this gathering. I wish also to express at this time our appreciation of the co-operation of the city and State departments in our plan for this Conference. Such an expression is due them and I gladly extend it on behalf of the committee. At the Philadelphia Conference of last year the Governor of our State in person urged that you arrange to hold your 34th Conference in this great city of our great northwest. I am informed that the Governor upon that occasion promised that in case the invitations were accepted and you came to this city, he would be present in person to extend to you the greeting of the State. In order that he might be in a position to fulfill his promise the people of this State last November re-elected him Governor. But unfortunately the duties of his position have required him to send us notice only a few moments ago that owing to some State business which was in progress he would be unable to be with us. The people of Minneapolis appreciate your coming to this city. They are here tonight in the person of their chief executive to extend to you a welcome, and I now have the honor of introducing to you for the address of welcome, on behalf of the city of Minneapolis, its Mayor, Honorable J. C. Haynes.

Honorable J. C. HAYNES—Ladies and Gentlemen, and Members of this Conference: We regret that we are not to be favored with the presence of the chief executive of our State tonight, a man who, if he were here, would extend to you a welcome to the great North Star State that would be genuine and eloquent. I am glad that it is my privilege and my pleasure on this occasion to extent to you a word of welcome to our fair city. I might spend much time telling you of the beauties, the advantages and the

many valuable characteristics of this great municipality of ours; where we Minneapolitans make our home; where we love to live. We believe that we have one of the most ideal communities in the wide world. We are all banded together here, trying to build up a city which in its commercial supremacy, in its moral tone, and civic character, in all that pertains to the highest civilization of the greatest age the sun has ever shone upon, shall be among the foremost, but we make no claim that we are the only city in that respect. We like to know and to feel that the same spirit which animates us in municipal development and in individual character and morals, animates every true American heart. That is the Minneapolis spirit as I understand it. And I want to say to you on behalf of the people of this great city, that whatever I may say tonight here will be perfunctory as a welcome; that it is not in me to tell you how cordially and heartily we receive you among our members. It is not in my power to say to you how highly we appreciate the lasting influence which you will make upon the civic life of this city for all time to come. Your stay among us and your work among us can not but leave upon this city and upon this people and upon our future work in civic betterment an impress which will never be forgotten and can never be effaced.

As Mayor of this city and as a citizen, I always want to feel and to know that the heartiest co-operation and the most cordial relations shall always exist between the several charities and humanitarian organizations and the public organizations. It is the only true policy. And I want to say another thing—I should regret to see the time when one should ever become merged in the other. Let them work together, but let them keep apart. That is my idea about co-operation between public and private bodies. We have been at it here for fifteen or twenty years in this city. We have such confidence in our philanthropic organizations that we entrust to them to make the choice of the expenditure of funds for charity, and I am confident that every dollar that has ever been expended in that way will show two dollars in results as compared with official expenditure. Not but that we are reasonably honest and business-like, but because of the value of personal service and sacrifice.

WALLACE G. NYE—Our greetings having been tendered, nothing remains for me to do as the representative of the local committee, except to transfer the authority and control over this meeting and others which are to follow, to the executive head of the Conference. President Butler, I very gladly yield to you the position which I have occupied temporarily, and trust that the meeting of your Conference may be pleasant and profitable. Ladies and gentlemen, I now have the pleasure of introducing to you Mr. Amos W. Butler, President of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.

MR. BUTLER—Mr. President, Mr. Mayor, Citizens of Minneapolis: A year ago we received your invitation to come to Minneapolis. We accepted it. We are here. We have listened to your words of greeting, and on behalf of the Conference I desire to introduce to you Dr. Jeffrey Brackett of Boston, a member of the Massachusetts Board of State Charities, who will respond on behalf of the Conference.

DR. BRACKETT—We thank you, Mr. Mayor, for your very kind words, and we would express to the committee, especially to the Commercial Club, our heartiest appreciation of all that they have done for the Conference. I beg you, gentlemen and ladies of Minneapolis, to feel that we are glad to be here for many reasons. I did not observe why until a moment ago the president called on me, a shy New Englander, reserved, because brought up on cold New England sea breezes, to speak on behalf, as he put it, of all the delegates from east, and south, and west. I think now, as I stand before this splendid audience, that he must have been anxious to see what effect such an occasion would have on the shy New Englander, to see wrestling within me the effort, or at least the desire, to be

eloquent. I almost feel it coming on now. Hither we have come by railroads so innumerable as to be unmentionable in five minutes, from the spruce-clad shores of the Passamaquoddy (that is a river down east in Maine), to the snow-covered hills of Alaska (we have a corresponding secretary in Alaska, sir, and if he is not here he ought to be); and from the palm fringed shores of the gulf we have come here, glad to see your fine city, glad to see your beautiful country, but much more glad to know more of your citizens and to know better your social workers. We expect to get help from this great Conference. We hope the citizens of Minneapolis and Minnesota will be helped by this Conference, for, my friends, what, after all, does this Conference mean to which many of us give one-fifty second of each year—that sounds much larger than a week—it means if we understand it that all over this beloved land of ours are more men and women who intend that the Twentieth Century shall bring more of opportunity to more of the sons of men among us, that social democracy in the truest sense of the word shall mean more in the United States and in the decades to come, than it has ever before meant the wide world around. In conclusion, Mr. Mayor and citizens of Minneapolis and Minnesota, our heartiest thanks, from north and south, and east and west, for all your courtesy and your kindness.

The President then introduced Senator Beveridge of Indiana, who spoke on Child Labor and the Constitution (page 188).

The President then delivered his address on the subject of "The Burden of Feeble-Mindedness" (page 1).

After sundry announcements and benediction by Bishop S. C. Edsall, the Conference adjourned to attend a reception on the stage, which was tendered by the citizens of Minneapolis.

First General Session.

Thursday, June 13, 10:30 a. m.

After being called to order by the President, the invocation was offered by the Rev. Father Gavisk, of St. John's Catholic Church of Indianapolis.

A. W. Gutridge, Secretary Associated Charities of St. Paul, as chairman of the Committee on Needy Families, Their Homes and Neighborhoods, then assumed the chair.

W. D. Washburn, Jr., of Minneapolis, read a paper on "Preventive Measures in the Mississippi Valley" (page 334).

Rev. J. A. Ryan, Professor of Ethics and Economics of St. Paul Seminary, St. Paul, read a paper on "The Standard of Living and the Problem of Dependency" (page 142).

Mr. W. H. McClain, General Manager of the St. Louis Provident Association, read a paper on "Relations Existing Between Defective Character and Dependence" (page 347).

The discussion was participated in by James F. Jackson of Cleveland, Dr. Boris D. Bogen of Cincinnati, Rev. C. W. Pond of Oberlin, Ohio, Mr. David Morgan of Minnesota, Miss Lucy Page Gaston of Chicago, Rev. Samuel Fallows of Chicago and W. H. McClain of St. Louis.*

The President announced the following committees: On Organization —H. H. Hart, Illinois, chairman; A. W. Gates, California; Miss Mary E.

*Discussions will be found following the text of the papers.

Richmond, Pa.; T. D. Osborne, Ky.; E. J. Butler, N. Y.; W. H. Whittaker, Ind.; Mrs. Glendower Evans, Mass. On Resolutions—Geo. S. Wilson, Washington, D. C., chairman; G. B. Robinson, N. Y.; Miss Jean Gordon, La. On Credentials—Dr. B. D. Bogen, Ohio, chairman; Alexander Johnson, Ind.; Miss Caroline M. Crosby, Minn.

The Secretary then announced the method of appointing the Committee on Time and Place, and requested the delegates to proceed to make appointments accordingly.

After announcements the Conference adjourned.

Section Meeting.

At 3 p. m., Thursday, June 13, the principal meeting of the Committee on Statistics was held.

The President called the meeting to order and introduced Mr. John Koren, expert special agent of U. S. Census Bureau, chairman of the Committee on Statistics, to preside. Mr. Koren then read the report of the Committee on Statistics (page 121).

Discussion followed, in which Rev. C. N. Pond, C. E. Faulkner, Dr. R. W. Hill and others took part. Mr. Pond presented a schedule of questions with regard to the work of voluntary charitable agencies, for the use of the Committee on Statistics. This schedule was referred to that committee for use in preparing a form of statistical report, which the voluntary societies should be asked to make use of in their printed reports. The Committee on Statistics and the General Secretary were requested to carry out the suggested plan.

A paper by Dr. Linsly R. Williams, on "Statistical Information Concerning the Welfare of School Children" (page 155), was read.

The President then introduced Secretary William H. Taft, who spoke as follows:

When I came to the city this morning I felt that I had no business here except as an auditor. But I was suddenly presented with this argument, "You are the President of the Red Cross of the United States, which, in a certain sense, administers and distributes charity in very large funds, and if you omit an opportunity to make an appeal for the Red Cross you are dodging the responsibility that you accepted when you became head of that institution."

Perhaps I have a right to speak, not with exactness, but with some general information, in respect to the charities and the prisons of the Spanish regime in the dependencies which came to us from Spain. The study of the history of these dependencies gives one a mingled feeling of admiration and sorrow with respect to that great people who several centuries ago were, perhaps, the greatest people of the world. The projects that they entered into and carried on with respect to charities are magnificent in many respects. Of course, they did it largely through the Roman Catholic Church, but the government was of great assistance.

The difficulty with respect to their charities is exactly the same as that with respect to the administration of the government generally—they are magnificent in plans, or, as they say, in "projectos," and in the contribution of money, but they fail utterly in administration. It is with respect to the administration of charities and prisons that we have been able to effect in Porto Rico, in Cuba and in the Philippines, very great reforms.

So much for the Spanish dependencies. And now to the matter of the Red Cross. I want to appeal to every representative of every charity in every community to assist our international charity of the Red Cross. In

Japan, in Russia, in France, less so in Germany, the Red Cross has millions of members of humble character who contribute in order to become members, but with the millions of the members these small contributions make a very large fund that can be called upon at once to meet any emergency throughout the world and do real help promptly.

Now what we are anxious to do is to stir up interest so as to make the Red Cross Association of each State as large as possible in its membership. Of course the theory of the Red Cross is that the generosity of the American people is such that there is no trouble about getting money to do things, but they wish an instrumentality through which that money can be safely and properly expended towards the end that they desire. Now we are in this difficulty with respect to the Red Cross at present. The generous hearts of the American people poured out money. In San Francisco we received some three or four millions. We have on hand now from $500,000 to $1,000,000, in respect to the expenditure of which we have grave doubts, because we are not sure that the plans developed by the local committee for the expenditure of that money are within the purpose of the donors. On the other hand, our hands are rather itching to get that $500,000 or $1,000,000 into our general treasury for use for some future emergency as it may arise, and, yet, probably, that is beyond our power unless we can go to the donors and get from them the authority to use it.

What we desire is not a special fund. We are loaded down with special funds. We have a fund for the Chinese and a fund for the Japanese and a fund for San Francisco, and a fund for Valparaiso, but the manner of each gift is such that we can hardly use it for any other purpose. Now, what we desire is to raise a general emergency fund by small contributions from the membership of the Red Cross at large. And so I accept this invitation to speak and beg the liberty of your Convention for the time being to urge upon each and every one of you, in the States in which you live, to join the Red Cross—to get as many to join it as possible, and to contribute a yearly stipend, a dollar I believe it is, in order that these dollars may be kept in an emergency fund which will certainly do good when the emergency arises.

After some announcements, the meeting adjourned.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION.

Thursday, June 13, 8 p. m.

The Conference was called to order and was led in prayer by Rev. M. H. Hallock.

MR. JOHNSON—I have been requested by a member of the Conference of some years' standing, who is with us in spirit although too ill to be with us in body, and who would like us to remember her, to make a presentation to the Conference. Mrs. James C. Fesler, of Rochelle, Illinois, a member of the Board of Auxiliary County Visitors of Logan County, Illinois, and appointed an official delegate by the Governor, has sent to us a very beautiful gavel which she wishes to present to you for the Conference. She accompanies her gift by many kind and thoughtful wishes for the long continued success of the Conference, and hopes the gavel she sends may long be used to call to order a splendid and useful meeting of charitable people.

MR. STORRS, of Michigan, moved that the Secretary be instructed to express the great appreciation of the Conference to Mrs. Fesler for the gift of the gavel. The motion was seconded and unanimously adopted.

The President announced a special private session for women connected with industrial or reform schools.

Notices of certain committee meetings were made.

The President introduced Mr. George L. Sehon, Superintendent of the Children's Home Society of Kentucky, chairman of the Committee on Children, who assumed the chair.

Mr. Edward T. Devine made an address on "Child Labor, Past and Present."

Mr. Owen R. Lovejoy then read a paper on "Child Labor and Philanthropy" (page 196).

A discussion then took place, participated in by Rev. Stephen P. Morris, of Omaha; Mrs. John M. Glenn, Baltimore; Miss M. E. Richmond, Philadelphia, and Miss Kate Barnard, Oklahoma.

After notices, the meeting adjourned.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION.

Friday, June 14, 10:30 a. m.

Meeting was called to order by the President and opened with prayer by Rabbi S. N. Deinard, of Minneapolis. The chair was then taken by Mr. George L. Sehon, who introduced Mr. Charles D. Hilles, Superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum, who read a paper on "Schools for Juvenile Delinquents" (page 209).

A discussion then took place, in which the following took part: Mr. Hart (Ill.), Mr. Storrs (Mich.), Mr. Lawson (Mich.), Mr. Haywood (Neb.), Bishop Fallows (Ill.), Mr. Penn (Pa.), Mrs. Amigh (Ill.), Dr. Barlow (Mich.), Mr. Leonard (Ohio), Mrs. Adams (Mass.), Mrs. Heller (Neb.), Mr. Vaux (Pa.), Mr. Young (S. Dak.), and Mr. Gates (Cal.).

A report of the Committee on Time and Place was made by Mr. Hutton, chairman, as follows: The Conference received invitations from Chicago, Ill.; Richmond, Va.; Cleveland, O.; Denver, Colo., and Oklahoma City. As Richmond received a majority of the votes cast the committee recommends it as the next meeting place, the time to be during the month of May, 1908.

On motion, seconded and adopted, the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Conference for Richmond.

Mr. P. J. Clark, member of the Board of Prison Overseers of Illinois, on behalf of the National Prison Association and the Chicago Local Committee which is arranging for its meeting, presented a cordial invitation to the members of the National Conference to attend the Prison Association meeting in Chicago next September.

After further announcements, the meeting adjourned.

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION.

Friday, June 14, 8:00 p. m.

Conference called to order, Father Cullen leading in prayer.

In the unavoidable absence of Mr. W. H. Allen, chairman of the committee, Mr. Sherman C. Kingsley, of Chicago, was introduced to preside, the session to be devoted to the Committee on the Promotion of Health in Home, School and Factory. Some extracts of the report of the committee were then read (page 165). A number of stereopticon pictures were then exhibited, illustrating the work of medical inspection of the schools of New York city. Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York, then read a paper on "The Duty of Society Toward the Child at School" (page 174).

A discussion followed, in which Dr. Bracken (of Minn.), Dr. Kellogg (of Mich.), Dr. Pond (of Ohio), Mrs. McVey (of Minn.), Miss Gordon (of La.), and others participated.

Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett offered the following resolution: "That the Secretary of the Conference is instructed to send to each of the ex-presidents not able to be with us, the hearty greetings of the Conference." The resolution was seconded and unanimously adopted.

FIFTH GENERAL SESSION.

Saturday, June 15, 8 p. m.

The Conference was called to order and led in prayer by the Rev. Skogsberg.

Mr. Robert W. Hebberd, Commissioner of Public Charities of New York city, chairman of the Committee on State Supervision and Administration, was called to the chair, and presented the report of the committee. (page 18).

Wm. R. Stewart, President of the New York State Board of Charities, read a paper on "The Necessary and Reasonable Powers of a State Board of Charities" (page 23).

L. A. Rosing, member of the State Board of Control of Minnesota, read a paper on the "Function of a State Board of Control" (page 40).

Discussion was participated in by Mr. Johnson, Dr. Copp, Mr. Faulkner, Mr. G. S. Robinson, Gen. Brinkerhoff, Mr. Bowman of Kansas, Mr. Storrs, Mr. Thomas of S. D., and the chairman.

After announcements, the meeting adjourned.

SIXTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday, June 17, 10:30 a. m.

The meeting was called to order and the Rev. Peter Peterson pronounced the invocation.

The General Secretary, chairman ex officio of the Committee on Reports from States, then presented the report in the form of printer's proof, remarking, as he did so, that in his opinion, under existing arrangements, it is impossible to make this report complete and satisfactory (page 525).

Mr. John Koren, Boston—I agree with the Secretary that this report is not satisfactory. That does not mean that the committee is to blame, for anyone can see that they have put in a vast amount of time and labor, but the committee, as at present constituted, has not the time, and perhaps has not the money to do the work in the manner we should like to have it done. I think it is up to the Conference to provide them with the means of doing more satisfactory work. I mean, particularly, give them the means whereby they can devote more time and energy to the compilation of the statistics, which are not so full and not so correct as they easily might be, and conceivably would be, if the proper officials could devote more time and energy to it. I think it is well worth our while. It is an enormous piece of work, and we want it as satisfactory as possible.

Father Reusing, President Nebraska State Conference—I wish to suggest that wherever there are State conferences of charities and correction, the corresponding secretaries communicate with the officers of the State conferences in order to get a more accurate report of the charities and corrections of various States.

Rev. Edw. A. Friedenhagen, Kansas—As President of the State Conference of Kansas, I wish to introduce a resolution: "Resolved, That the Secretary be requested to visit as many of the State conferences during the year as possible." I would like to add this, that in 1900 the General Conference came to Topeka, Kansas. The outgrowth of that meeting was a State Conference for Kansas.

The resolution was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. Storrs, Michigan—I want to say one word in defense of the different State secretaries. We can not travel around our State and get all this information which you ask for. We depend on other people for it, and it is almost impossible to get it from some people, so that we do not want to throw all the blame upon the correspondents of the different States for that lack of information which is found in the reports of the several States.

Secretary Johnson—I desire to call the attention of the Conference to the heading of this report. You see on the first page the words "printer's proof." I shall be glad to receive corrections and to submit them to the men who made the original report and put them in the volume.

The President explained that Dr. J. Moorhead Murdock, chairman of the Committee on Defectives, being detained at home by the very serious illness of Mrs. Murdock, Dr. A. C. Rogers, of Faribault, Minn., would act as chairman. The committee report was presented (page 468). Dr. Rogers then gave a paper on "The Relation of the Institutions for Defectives to the Public School System" (page 469), which was briefly discussed by Dr. Fernald of Massachusetts, Mrs. Amigh of Illinois, T. F. Fitzgibbon of Indiana, and Dr. Tate of Minnesota.

J. Perrine Hamilton, Superintendent of Michigan Employment Institution for the Blind, then read a paper on "Public Provision for the Blind." (page 489).

Mr. Oscar Kusterman read a paper on "The Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind," of which he is Superintendent (page 495), and a letter from Miss Helen Keller (page 507).

This subject was then discussed by Mr. Jones of Ohio, Mr. Dow of Minnesota, Mr. Hamilton of Michigan, and the meeting adjourned.

SEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday, June 17, 8 p. m.

Conference called to order, and was led in prayer by the Rev. S. P. Long of Minneapolis.

A telegram was read from ex-President Timothy Nicholson of Indiana, in which he expressed his appreciation of the greetings of the Conference.

A telegram was read from Mayor Carlton McCarthy of Richmond, Va., in which he expressed the gratification of the citizens of the city and the State at the acceptance by the Conference of the invitation for next year, and pledged enthusiastic co-operation.

The Committee on Organization then presented its report, which was adopted (page 646).

Dr. Owen Copp, Secretary State Board of Insanity of Massachusetts, was introduced as chairman of the Committee on the Insane and Epileptic, and presented the report of the committee (page 384).

Dr. Albert E. Barrett, Director of the State Psychopathic Hospital at the University of Michigan, read a paper on "Hospitals for the Acute and Recoverable Insane" (page 397).

Dr. Fernald made an address on "Colonies for the Insane and other Defectives" (page 411). These papers were then discussed by Dr. Rogers, Dr. Copp, and Dr. Tomlinson of Minnesota, and Miss Hall of Cincinnati.

The session adjourned.

EIGHTH GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday, June 18, 10:30 a. m.

Session was called to order by ex-President E. T. Devine, and led in prayer by Rev. L. A. Crandall of Minneapolis.

Prof. Charles R. Henderson presented a report of the Committee on Workingmen's Insurance, as follows:

Your committee, appointed in 1901 at Detroit and reappointed in 1906 at Philadelphia, has for this year no formal report. The studies presented in 1905 and 1906 have been useful in giving information to the humane public and in directing the movement of thought in this country. Charity workers in several cities have contributed to the discussion by giving tragic illustrations of dependence due to accidents and disease. *Charities and the Commons* has published articles which have made their appeal to the national conscience.

During the past year the subject of insurance of wage earners has been studied by the Bureau of Labor at Washington, and has been discussed in several legislatures. Reports of commissions in Connecticut and Illinois have formulated the need of State action and indicated the direction of a social policy. President Roosevelt's messages to Congress have attracted wide attention. It is evident that our great nation is awake to its duty and resolved not to continue much longer behind the other great nations of European culture in its care for productive laborers. While your committee has no additional results of investigation ready for statement at this time, we are following the course of discussion and the march of events, confident that the people of our country are ripe for some great measures which will help to provide a fund for the toilers and their families when income ceases on account of accident, sickness, old age and death.

A. W. BUTLER,
J. G. BROOKS,
F. L. HOFFMAN,
E. T. DEVINE,
S. G. SMITH,
F. A. FETTER.
C. R. HENDERSON,
Chairman.

The Committee on Children having charge of the session, Prof. Graham Taylor was requested to take the chair. He introduced the first speaker in a brief address (page 294).

Mr. Henry E. Curtis, Secretary of the Playground Association of America, read a paper on "The Playground" (page 278).

Mrs. Helene Ingram, Superintendent of Relief of the N. Y. Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, read a paper on "The Value of the Fresh Air Movement" (page 286).

The discussion following was participated in by Dr. Pond (Ohio), Mr. Whittaker (Indiana), Miss McDowell, Mr. Hadden (Ohio), Miss Wood, Mr. Martin (Massachusetts), and Mr. Taylor.

After announcements, the Conference adjourned.

NINTH GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday, June 18, 8 p. m.

The Conference was called to order by the President, and led in prayer by the Rev. M. D. Edwards of St. Paul.

The following resolution was read and referred to the committee:

"Whereas, The members of this Conference consider an attendance of four consecutive evening conference sessions somewhat too strenuous even for social workers,

"Resolved, That in arranging the program for the Conference of 1908, the Executive Committee is hereby requested to leave Saturday evening free, as well as Saturday afternoon, evening sessions to be held Wednesday, Thursday, Friday and Monday and Tuesday evenings only."

In the absence of Superintendent Scott of Elmira, N. Y., Mr. James A. Leonard was introduced as acting chairman of the Committee on "Prison and Police Administration."

The report of the committee was then presented (page 86).

Warden Wolfer of Minnesota read a paper on "Modern Prison Problems" (page 92).

A full discussion ensued, in which the following took part: Mr. Leonard, Mr. Whittaker, Mr. Johnson, Mr. Storrs, Mr. Almy, Mr. Morris, Mr. Glenn, Mr. Faulkner, Mr. Asbury, Mr. Martin, Mr. Anderson of Texas, Miss Barnard, Judge John Day Smith, Mr. David F. Tilley, and President Butler.

A telegram was read from ex-President Robert W. de Forest, expressing pleasure at the greeting of the Conference and wishing it success; and one from Dr. William F. Drewry, President of the Virginia State Conference, extending greetings and promising complete and hearty co-operation for next year.

Session adjourned.

TENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Wednesday, June 19, 8 p. m.

The Conference was called to order by the President, and was led in prayer by the Rev. D. C. Ruggles of Minneapolis.

A telegram was read from ex-President Wm. P. Letchworth, acknowledging the greetings of the Conference and extending best wishes.

The Committee on Resolutions presented a report, which was unanimously adopted as follows:

Resolved, That in preparing the program for the 1908 meeting of the Conference, the Executive Committee is respectfully requested to endeavor to arrange so that committees may have a longer time than one hour for their sections meetings.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Conference are hereby tendered:

To the city of Minneapolis for the hearty welcome extended to this Conference, and to the Mayor of the city for his cordial word of greeting, and for the delightful outing on Lake Minnetonka provided for the delegates;

To Mr. Wallace G. Nye and the Public Affairs Committee of the Commercial Club and their associates, for the excellent arrangements made for the work and entertainment of the Conference, and for the thoughtful and painstaking arrangements for the comfort and convenience of the delegates;

To the trustees of Plymouth Church for the facilities provided for the

Conference meetings, and to the ladies for the beautiful floral decorations, and for the special conveniences provided for the comfort of the women delegates;

To the various State and city officials, who have extended courtesies to delegates, and to the local charitable organizations which have done so much to contribute to the success of the Conference;

To those who furnished music at Conference meetings, and to the pastors of local churches for their participation in the Conference and for their kindness in opening their pulpits to Conference delegates on Sunday;

To the Most Reverend John Ireland, Archbishop of the Diocese of Saint Paul, for the Conference sermon delivered on Sunday afternoon;

To the Pillsbury Settlement House and to the Minneapolis Women's Club for receptions to delegates, and to the Young Men's Christian Association for the privileges of its building extended to the gentlemen delegates;

To the Saint Paul Commercial Club and the Town and Country Club, for the outing to the State Capitol and the luncheon on the beautiful grounds of the Town and Country Club;

To the local telephone companies for free telephone service at the Conference headquarters, and to those railroads which granted reduced rates to Conference delegates;

To the local press, the Associated Press and the many newspapers throughout the country that have given publicity to the proceedings of the Conference;

And to all the citizens of Minneapolis and Saint Paul who have contributed to the success of this meeting, which has been one of the most interesting and profitable in the history of the Conference.

Respectfully submitted,

GEO. S. WILSON,
GEO. B. ROBINSON,
JEAN GORDON,
Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. Gutridge, chairman of the Committee on Needy Families, Their Homes and Neighborhood, assumed the chair and read the report of the committee (page 299).

Miss McDowell spoke on "Work for Normal Working Young Women" (page 307), and Mr. Raymond Robins made an address on "The One Main Thing" (page 326).

Mr. John Koren—The Committee on Statistics has prepared a form of schedule for the use of relief societies. In order to make our work fruitful I hope that the Conference will give the general secretary authority to distribute copies of that schedule with our recommendations to the relief societies, asking that they adopt it so far as possible, and perhaps make returns later on to the Secretary if requested to do so.

On motion by Mr. Penn, duly seconded and carried, the General Secretary was authorized to distribute copies of that schedule, with the committee's recommendations as suggested by Chairman Koren.

The General Secretary then presented the report of the Executive Committee for the Conference year 1906-1907, as follows:

The Executive Committee has held five meetings during the year. The first was at Albany, September, 1906, in connection with the meeting of the National Prison Association, when there were twelve members present. At this time the date of the meeting in Minneapolis was finally settled, and the arrangements as to the preliminary advertising which the local committee had agreed to do were confirmed.

At this time the metal badge which was first used at Portland, Maine, and last used at Portland, Oregon, was declared to be the official badge of

the Conference, to be sold to members at thirty-five cents each. Other business with regard to the Conference was transacted.

The second meeting was at Chicago, Ill., January, 1907. Nine members were present. At this time the plan of circularizing, as arranged with the local committee at Minneapolis, using the Conference card mailing list, was announced in detail, and the various circulars and other publications which had been prepared were reported on.

The Secretary then reported that he had attended State conferences in seven States, and expected to attend several more. The President also reported on the attendance at State conferences, and the Executive Committee decided that as far as possible all State conferences should be attended by the Secretary or the President, and that when the State conferences could not conveniently pay the expenses of these officers they were to be charged up to the Conference.

At this time a report was received from the local committee as to being ready to begin the work on the mailing list, and the President presented a tentative report on the program. The committee decided the number of general sessions and instructed the President to divide them between the different committees in accordance with the material provided for the program.

The next meeting was held in Minneapolis, June 12th. At this time the full program was presented as the President's report, and the Secretary and Treasurer each presented their financial reports for the year. These were referred to an auditing committee.

The Secretary reported on the publications now in hand, namely: the cumulative index and the guide to the study of the proceedings, and announced that they would be ready for the printer in a very short time, and that the first part of the cumulative index (revised edition), which includes all the papers of the 33 conferences, 1874 to 1906 inclusive, was ready and offered for sale; that the second and third and fourth parts, being the complete topical index, would be published in the bulletins for August, November and February next, respectively.

At the next meeting, June 17th, an auditing committee reported that the financial statements were correct and properly vouchered, and that there was a balance in the treasury of $2,116.24, being $560.10 more than at the corresponding period of last year.

As the Conference is going to Richmond, the plan for advertising for the South was discussed, and to some extent outlined. The Executive Committee decided that the time had come to use the entire time of the Secretary for the year, and he was accordingly engaged for the entire time and his salary fixed at $2,500 per annum.

The question of printing papers in advance, and how they should be presented, was referred to a special committee, to report at the next meeting.

The last meeting to report on took place this morning, June 19th, and was a joint meeting of the outgoing and the incoming Executive Committees, presided over by President Butler.

The special committee about printing papers recommended that papers should not be presented in the absence of their owners unless they were in print, and in that case they should be presented only (from the platform) in the shape of brief abstracts; also, that papers printed in advance should be distributed to the members when they registered. This was adopted by the Executive Committee.

Various methods for making the conferences more useful, arranging the papers and discussions better, and securing more certainly the presence of the authors in each case, were discussed and adopted.

The Executive Committee urged that in future each important section shall have a meeting room of its own, in which it can hold its own meetings and in which it can bring its interesting debates to a conclusion by adjournment and reconvening as necessary.

The Publication Committee was advised, in printing the volume of 1907, to have the debates follow immediately after the papers which they discussed, instead of being grouped at the end of the volume, as has prevailed for many years.

The committee also decided that henceforth the mailing list shall remain in the Secretary's office, and that the publicity campaign shall be conducted from thence.

Satisfactory arrangements and pledges were received from Richmond, Va., and arrangements were suggested by which the President and Secretary should visit that city and start things off at the proper time.

The committee also decided that it was proper for the President and Secretary to present to the Conference a report of the action of the Executive Committee during the year, which is hereby done.

(Signed) AMOS W. BUTLER,
President.
ALEXANDER JOHNSON,
General Secretary.

On motion, duly seconded and carried, the report of the Executive Committee was adopted and incorporated in the proceedings of the Conference.

Mr. Johnson—On behalf of the Credentials Committee, I beg to report that the total registration has been, of members, 671; visitors, 73; total, 744. It is quite certain that numerous members present who had previously paid their subscriptions have not registered, so that I think we are not out of bounds in saying that the total number of members and visitors is about 800. I think that is a fair statement.

The report of the official delegates appointed is as follows: By governors of States, 578; official delegates appointed by mayors of cities, 201; total, 779. Of these 779 appointed, no less than 312 have reported for duty at this session, which is far the largest number of official delegates in proportion to the number appointed we have ever enrolled. The 671 members present represent 41 States, territories and provinces, and they come from the following States: From Minnesota, 213; Illinois, 56; New York, 45; Ohio, 42; Indiana, 37; Wisconsin, 36; Massachusetts, 30; Pennsylvania, 23; Missouri, 19; Michigan, 16; Nebraska, 14; California and South Dakota, each 12; Maine, 10; Connecticut and Iowa, each 9; New Jersey, Colorado, District of Columbia and Kansas, each 8; Maryland, 7; Rhode Island, Georgia and Kentucky, each 6; Louisiana and North Dakota, each 4; Montana, 3; North Carolina, Oregon, Oklahoma, Virginia, Washington and Delaware, each 2; and one from the Hawaiian Islands, Wyoming, Texas, West Virginia, South Carolina, New Hampshire, Alabama and Canada. The report is respectfully submitted.

President Butler—Our Conference welcomes all who come into it. Upon the broad platform of charity all who love their fellowmen can stand. In this spirit we all unite, and in it we all work together. I want to speak in appreciation of the co-operation given your officers this year by those in every field of charitable activity and from every phase of religious belief. This is as it should be. May it ever be so. The Committee on Resolutions has presented its report and it has been adopted officially by this body. I want, however, to express my personal thanks to our friends in Minnesota and to the officers and committees of this Conference, and above all to our efficient General Secretary, for their kind encouragement and hearty co-operation, to thank you for whatever success has attended our meeting in this beautiful city. Some of us have come to love it because of its beauty and charm, its splendid population and its delightful Indian names. We have met this year in the city of Minneapolis on the banks of the Mississippi, near the shores of Minnetonka, in the State of Minnesota. I come from an Eastern State several hundred miles away, yet when my father

was born in Indiana the land on which we stand tonight was a part of that territory and was governed from Vincennes. The time has come for me to lay down the gavel which you so graciously placed in my hands a year ago at Philadelphia. You have chosen another to be your chief servant. He has served for years in other capacities in his city and in his State. He has served as an officer of this Conference. Wherever he has served he has been a faithful and true servant, and therefore having been faithful in many things he has been chosen for greater work. My friend, this Conference has bestowed upon you its greatest honor and asks for your greatest service. I give you my best wishes, and with all the members of this Conference pledge to you our hearty support.

PRESIDENT-ELECT MULRY—I wish to express the appreciation of this Conference for the excellent work done by the retiring President. His quiet, effective work has made this Conference one of the most representative that has been gathered. The spirit of toleration which is the foundation-stone of this Conference, the intelligent treatment of all sorts of notions and theories which has actuated all the meetings, gives evidence that we are still living up to the principles of our founders. The great object of this Conference is undoubtedly to gather all sorts of charitable and correctional work together in one meeting, and to take from each that which is good and to form that into one great whole which is beneficial to all.

We have a very good way of taking care of the Presidents of the Conference. Ordinarily a President is retired to private life, but here they make an ex-President a member of the Excutive Committee and get a reasonable amount of work out of him. That is why it is so easy for the new President to take office, because he has the advice of all the former presidents and the Conference is virtually run by a large body of presidents, with one acting president. Now our next convention will be held at Richmond, Virginia. We want to make progress. The motto of this society is "Onward." Therefore, we hope that every member who has attended this Conference will make himself a committee of one to stir up enthusiasm and to create among those who are not already interested in the work a spirit of emulation, so that our next Conference will be at least as good, if not better than this one. We have had present a large number of organizations in this State which are not as yet affiliated with this Conference. They ought to be. There is a feeling that they are big enough to stand on their own foundations. The spirit of this age is a spirit of concentration. It should be the duty and the work of all members of this Conference to gather all these other organizations having the same objects in view and form them into a working body controlled by men of earnest and unselfish purpose, who will create an impression and do an amount of good which can not be done in the scattered sort of way it is being done today. Therefore, as the success of this Conference depends as much on the individual member as it does upon the President and the Executive Committee, I ask you one and all to work enthusiastically for the success of the Conference at Richmond.

PRESIDENT BUTLER—The request of the Executive Committee is that the final word be spoken on behalf of the citizens of this beautiful city by the Rev. Dr. L. H. Hallock, pastor of this church, who is an efficient member of the local committee.

Dr. L. H. Hallock then made a brief address, in which he spoke of the satisfaction he felt that the last use of the old church should be a work for humanity.*

PRESIDENT BUTLER—Let us all stand, and the Conference will close with the pronouncing of the benediction by Dr. L. H. Hallock.

(The Conference then adjourned to meet in Richmond, Va., in May, 1908.)

*Plymouth church building, in which the meetings were held, had been sold, and the wreckers were about to begin work the morning after the conference adjourned.

APPENDIX

TO THE ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT.

The Board of State Charities of Indiana maintains in its office a card registration of public institution inmates. Beginning in 1890, when Alexander Johnson was Secretary, with the records of four hospitals for the insane and ninety-two county poor asylums, the registration has been enlarged from time to time and now contains the records of the movement of population of 148 institutions and includes the names of about 75,000 persons who have at some time been inmates thereof. The following figures are based upon these records:*

Eight hundred and three families, selected because of feeble-mindedness in one or more generations, were found to consist of 3,048 members, an average of 3.79 persons to each family. There were 1,395 males and 1,653 females. Nine hundred forty-two, or 67 per cent. of the males, and 1,166, or 70 per cent. of the females, are known to have been, at some time or other, inmates of public institutions in Indiana, principally county poor asylums. More than half of these persons were feeble-minded. The mental defect occurred sometimes in the parents, again in the children, frequently in both parents and children. The mental and physical condition of the entire number is as follows:

	Males	Females	Total	Percentage
Feeble-minded	629	965	1594	52.3
Insane	44	52	96	3.2
"Dull"	76	47	123	4.
Epileptic	16	18	34	1.1
Blind, deaf or paralytic	22	14	36	1.1
Normal or unknown	608	557	1165	38.3
Total	1395	1653	3048	100.

Feeble-mindedness is frequently accompanied by some other defect, such as epilepsy, blindness, deafness or paralysis. Epilepsy occurs more frequently than the others mentioned. Fifty-six of the males and 79 of the females marked feeble-minded in the above tabulation are also epileptic, blind, deaf or paralytic. The whole number of epileptics found in these families is 113. Counting those reported as feeble-minded, insane, dull or epileptic, there are 765 males and 1,082 females, a total of 1,847, or 60.6 per cent., who are mentally defective. The greater number of females is due partly to the fact that some of these "families" consist, so far as the records go, of a feeble-minded woman and her child or children, frequently illegitimate.

*Data from these records used by Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell in his paper "Feeble-Mindedness as an Inheritance." (Proc. N. C. C. C. 1896, p. 219); and by the present author in his address on "A Notable Factor of Social Degeneracy" before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Denver, Colorado, August, 1901, (Proc. A. A. A. S.).

It has not been possible to learn the parentage of every one of these 3,048 individuals, but counting those of whom we have some information, we have found that in the case of 1,074. or 35.2 per cent., the mother was either mentally or physically defective and the father was unknown or normal; of 297, or 9.7 per cent., the father was defective and the mother unknown or normal; of 377, or 12.4 per cent., both parents were defective, making an aggregate of 1,748, or 57.3 per cent., whose father, mother, or both father and mother were defective. Of 43, or 1.4 per cent., the parents were related, but not defective so far as we have record. Of the remaining 1,257, or 41.2 per cent., the mental condition of the parents is either unknown or normal. Of the entire number, 421, or 13.8 per cent., are reported as illegitimate.

Included in these 803 families are 312 in which feeble-mindedness was found in two or more generations. The whole number, 312, includes 261 families of two generations each, 42 families of three generations each, seven families of four generations each and two families of five generations each. In no one of these families is there less than two generations of feeble-mindedness, and frequently the mental defect extends to the last generation of which we have record. Were it possible to follow into later life the children composing, for the most part, the third, fourth and fifth generations in the table which follows, we would doubtless find it necessary to place them in the "Feeble-Minded" column instead of in the "Unknown or Normal" column. In these figures, however, every one of whose mental defect we did not have positive record has been relegated to the latter column.

In the different generations of this group of 312 families there are 1,643 individuals. Of the whole number, 941, or 57.2 per cent., are feeble-minded, while 997, or 60.6 per cent., are either mentally or physically defective. In the first generation either the father or the mother, and frequently both, are feeble-minded. Their descendants in the second generation, including 59 men and women who married into the families and became the parents of later generations, number 754, of whom 494, or 65.5 per cent., are feeble-minded, while 531, or 70.4 per cent., are either mentally or physically defective. The entire number of descendants, extending for some of the families into the fifth generation and including 76 men and women related by marriage, is 1,019, and among these are 584 feeble-minded persons, 624 being either physically or mentally defective. This indicates feeble-mindedness in 57.3 per cent. and mental or physical defect in 61.2 per cent. of the descendants of these 312 unions, in which the man, the woman or both were feeble-minded.

PARENTAGE OF 3,048 INDIVIDUALS

INDIVIDUALS			PARENTS	
MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL	FATHER	MOTHER
132	108	240	Feeble-minded	Feeble-minded
129	118	247	Feeble-minded	Normal or unknown
1	0	1	F. M., Bl. and Df.	Normal or unknown
11	5	16	Feeble-minded	Insane
8	4	12	Feeble-minded	Epileptic
0	1	1	Feeble-minded	F. M. and Paralytic
1	2	3	F. M. and Blind	Feeble-minded
1	0	1	F. M., Bl. and Ep.	Normal or unknown
3	0	3	F. M. and Blind	Blind
2	0	2	F. M. and Blind	Normal or unknown
0	1	1	F. M. and Blind	F. M. and Blind
1	0	1	F. M. and Epileptic	Normal or unknown
0	1	1	F. M. and Blind	Insane
2	0	2	F. M. and Paralytic	Normal or unknown
3	2	5	F. M. and Paralytic	Feeble-minded
5	11	16	F. M. and Epileptic	Feeble-minded
8	4	12	Feeble-minded	Paralytic
6	3	9	Insane	Feeble-minded
1	0	1	F. M. and Blind	Epileptic
9	7	16	Insane	Normal or unknown
4	1	5	Insane	Insane
10	10	20	Dull	Dull
473	453	926	Normal or unknown	Feeble-minded
13	8	21	Normal or unknown	F. M. and Epileptic
3	5	8	Epileptic	Feeble-minded
6	4	10	Paralytic	Feeble-minded
8	5	13	Blind	Feeble-minded
0	1	1	Normal or unknown	F. M. and Deaf
5	10	15	Normal or unknown	Feeble-minded and Bl.
2	1	3	Normal or unknown	F. M. and Paralytic
1	0	1	Normal or unknown	F. M., Par. and Blind
45	40	85	Normal or unknown	Insane
1	5	6	Normal or unknown	Dull
3	2	5	Epileptic	Normal or unknown
3	7	10	Normal or unknown	Epileptic
0	1	1	Deaf	Normal or unknown
1	0	1	Deaf	Deaf
5	7	12	Blind	Normal or unknown
2	0	2	Normal or unknown	Blind
6	3	9	Paralytic	Normal or unknown
2	2	4	Normal or unknown	Paralytic
458	799	1257	Normal or unknown	Normal or unknown
21	22	43	Related to mother	
1395	1653	3048		

F. M.—Feeble-minded. Bl.—Blind. Df.—Deaf. Ep.—Epileptic. Par.—Paralytic.

Generations.	Number of Individuals.		Feeble-Minded.		Feeble-Minded and Epileptic.		Feeble-Minded Epileptic and Deaf.		Feeble-Minded and Paralytic.		Feeble-Minded and Blind.		Feeble-Minded Blind and Epileptic.		Feeble-Minded and Deaf.		Insane.		Epileptic.		Blind.		Deaf.		Paralytic.		Dull.		Normal or Unknown.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
First	312	312	110	225	3	6	0	0	5	2	2	3	1	0	0	0	1	5	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	183	68
Second	410	344	238	225	9	8	1	0	0	1	2	5	0	0	1	4	4	3	4	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	14	7	135	88
Third	112	94	26	38	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	83	52
Fourth	26	30	9	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	18
Fifth	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	862	781	384	500	13	16	1	0	5	3	4	9	1	0	1	4	5	8	7	3	5	0	0	1	1	1	16	9	419	227

Number of families of 2 generations 261
Number of families of 3 generations 42
Number of families of 4 generations 7
Number of families of 5 generations 2

Total 312

ROBERT J. HOGUET, TREASURER, IN ACCOUNT WITH THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Receipts.

1906.				
May 1.	To balance on hand		$1,550 14	
22.	To cash, Secretary		1,996 40	
June 6.	To cash, Secretary		111 25	
July 6.	To cash, State Board, Illinois		12 00	
9.	To cash, Secretary		77 00	
27.	To cash, Local Committee, Philadelphia		1,500 00	
Aug. 2.	To cash, Secretary		30 85	
31.	To cash, Secretary		154 78	
Sept. 30.	To cash, Secretary		81 80	
Nov. 5.	To cash, Secretary		53 20	
Dec. 5.	To cash, Secretary		28 80	
1907.				
Jan. 2.	To cash, Secretary		124 95	
Feb. 4.	To cash, Secretary		222 55	
14.	To cash, Secretary		801 20	
28.	To cash, Secretary		1,309 55	
Mar. 8.	To cash, Secretary		578 89	
15.	Check Newton Seminary		1 25	
19.	To cash, Secretary		484 80	
Apr. 15.	To cash, Secretary		493 65	
May 2.	To cash, Secretary		484 75	
20.	To cash, Secretary		680 49	
				$10,778 30

Disbursements.

1906.			
June 6.	By voucher 42	$383 88	
30.	By voucher 43	250 00	
30.	By voucher 44	381 93	
30.	By voucher 45	399 97	
July 31.	By voucher 46	258 97	
Aug. 31.	By voucher 47	217 55	
Oct. 11.	By voucher 48	394 82	
Nov. 4.	By voucher 49	305 20	
Dec. 10.	By voucher 50	479 13	
27.	By voucher 51	331 73	
1907.			
Jan. 31.	By voucher 52	453 88	
Feb. 28.	By voucher 53	330 03	
Apr. 1.	By voucher 54	413 22	
1.	By voucher 55	2,970 86	
May 1.	By voucher 56	590 89	
16.	By voucher 57	500 00	
	By balance	2,116 24	
			$10,778 30

Balance as certified, $2,116.24.

Examined with vouchers and found correct.

JOHN M. GLENN,
FRANK L. MCVEY,
Auditing Committee.

SECRETARY'S FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR CONFERENCE YEAR 1906-1907.

Receipts.

1906.				
May 1.	To Treasurers' balance		$1,550 14	
to	To contributions		1,535 00	
1907.	To sales of proceedings		726 54	
May 20.	To sales of Bulletin		4 00	
	To sales of reprints		176 24	
	To sales of Index		1 20	
	To exchange on checks		20 30	
	Memberships, active—			
	Subs. of '03, '04, '05. $95 00			
	Subs. of 1906..... 2,129 38			
	Subs. of 1907..... 2,370 50			
	Subs. of 1908..... 10 00	$4,604 88		
	Memberships, sustaining—			
	Subs. of 1906..... $320 00			
	Subs. of 1907..... 1,840 00	2,160 00	6,764 88	$10,778 30

Disbursements.

1906.				
May 1.	By Proceedings, back Nos.....	$16 00		
to	By Proceedings of 1906—			
1907.	Reporting	149 38		
May 20.	Printing and binding.....	1,758 35		
	Plates	77 50		
	Distributing	487 15	$2,472 38	
	By Bulletin		1,025 99	
	By Reprints		215 50	
	By Index and Guide—			
	Compiling	$500 00		
	Printing Index	86 00	586 00	
	By advance printing Conference 1906.....		61 00	
	By stationery and miscellaneous printing...		571 16	
	By postage		330 75	
	By telegraph and telephone		40 52	
	By freight, express and miscellaneous ex..		102 43	
	By office furniture		143 10	
	By advance press work, Conference of 1906.		250 00	
	By insurance on volumes.....		15 50	
	By salary of Secretary.....	$1,500 00		
	By salary of Clerk	720 00		
	Clerk at Conference, 1906.....	10 00		
			2,230 00	
	Office rent		180 00	
	Traveling expenses, Secretary.....	$347 86		
	Traveling expenses, President.....	74 97	421 73	
	Treasurer's balance		2,116 24	$10,778 30

Respectfully submitted,
ALEXANDER JOHNSON,
General Secretary.

Examined with vouchers and found correct.
Balance certified, $2,116.24.

JOHN M. GLENN,
FRANK MCVEY,
Auditing Committee.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE, 1907.

President, Amos W. Butler, Indianapolis, Ind.; First Vice-President, Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield, N. J.; Second Vice-President, George Vaux, Jr., Girard Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.; Third Vice-President, L. A. Rosing, St. Paul, Minn.; General Secretary, Alexander, Johnson; Assistant Secretaries, W. H. McClain, St. Louis, Mo.; Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn.; Arthur P. Kellogg, New York; Nathaniel G. Grasty, Baltimore; Harold K. Estabrook, Philadelphia; H. S. Braucher, Portland, Maine; Treasurer, Robert J. Hoguet, New York.

Executive Committee—The President; the ex-Presidents of the Conference; the First Vice-President; James Allison, Cincinnati; Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago; Joseph Lee, Boston; Hon. Julian W. Mack, Chicago; F. L. McVey, Minneapolis; George B. Robinson, New York; Max Senior, Cincinnati; Mornay Williams, New York; Dr. Hal C. Wyman, Detroit.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

Reports from States—Alexander Johnson, General Secretary, Chairman ex officio; George B. Davis, Richmond, Va.; Miss Daisy Denson, Raleigh, N. C.; W. A. Gates, Berkeley, Calif.; W. C. Graves, Springfield, Ill.; Rutherford H. Platt, Columbus, Ohio.

State Supervision of Charitable and Correctional Agencies—Robert W. Hebberd, New York, Chairman; Mrs. Ophelia Amigh, Geneva, Ill.; C. W. Birtwell, Boston; O. K. Cushing, San Francisco; Dr. Charles A. Elwood, Columbia, Mo.; Wm. S. Friedman, Denver; Frank D. Hall, Fargo, N. D.; C. M. Hubbard, Cincinnati; Carey J. Hunter, Raleigh, N. C.; Mrs. Mary A. Jacobson, Newark, N. J.; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Rockford, Ill.; D. B. Price, Stevensville, Mont.; Hon. M. J. Scanlan, New York; W. E. Tipton, Mitchell, S. D.; George S. Wilson, Washington, D. C.; M. M. Woods, Salt Lake City, Utah; Dr. Hal C. Wyman, Detroit.

Needy Families: Their Homes and Neighborhoods—A. W. Gutridge, St. Paul, Minn, Chairman; Miss Ada L. Arundel, Richmond, Va.; George A. Bellamy, Cleveland; Robert F. Biggs, Baltimore; Nathan Bijur, New York; Dr. Boris D. Bogen, Cincinnati; Miss Caroline Crosby, Minneapolis, Minn.; George F. Damon, Kansas City, Mo.; A. F. Davis, Memphis, Tenn.; Mrs. H. H. Dawson, Newark, N. J.; Charles S. Grout, Indianapolis; J. C. Logan, Atlanta; James Minnick, Providence, R. I.; Miss Anna H. Murray, Seattle, Wash.; Benjamin Pettee, Boston; Mrs. P. J. Toomey, St. Louis; Charles F. Weller, Washington, D. C.

Promotion of Health in Home, School and Factory—W. H. Allen, New York, Chairman; Dr. Frank Billings, Chicago; Miss M. L. Birtwell, Cambridge, Mass.; Otto W. Davis, Columbus, O.; Mrs. Emma Eckhouse, Indianapolis; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, Baltimore; Miss Harriet Fulmer, Chicago; Freeman Gowen, Portland, Maine; Edward T. Hartman, Boston; Miss Marie R. Jamme, Minneapolis; Miss Matilda Johnson, Cleveland; Dr. S. A. Knopf, New York; Dr. Walter Lindley, Los Angeles; Wm. H. McClain, St. Louis; Rev. S. P. Morris, Omaha; Edgar Gardner Murphy, Montgomery, Alabama.

THE INSANE AND EPILEPTIC—Dr. Owen Copp, Boston, Chairman; Rev. J. M. Buckley, New York; Dr. G. F. Edenharter, Indianapolis; Dr. H. C. Eyman, Massillon, Ohio; Robert Gilliam, Petersburg, Va.; Dr. J. L. Green, Asylum, Neb.; Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Chicago; Gustave Küsterman, Green Bay, Wis.; Dr. O. R. Long, Ionia, Mich.; Dr. M. L. Perry, Parsons, Kansas; Hon. G. S. Robinson, Des Moines, Iowa; Dr. Bruce Smith, Toronto; Dr. W. B. Spratling, Sonyea, N. Y.; Dr. H. A. Tomlinson, St. Peter, Minn.

DEFECTIVES—Dr. J. M. Murdock, Polk, Pa., Chairman; Prof. Demarchus C. Brown, Indianapolis: Miss E. E. Farrell, New York; Dr. A. C. Jelly, Boston; J. W. Jones, Columbus, Ohio; Dr. George Mogridge, Glenwood, Iowa; Dr. Mary Pogue, Lake Geneva, Wis.; Dr. A. C. Rogers, Faribault, Minn.; Mrs. C. A. Weston, Portland, Maine; Dr. A. W. Wilmarth, Chippewa Falls, Wis.

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*Cochran, Miss Mary N., 131 S. 22nd St.
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*Collins, Henry H., 226 Columbia Ave.
*Converse, John H., 500 N. Broad St.
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Cope, Porter F., 4806 Chester Ave.
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*Woodward, Mrs. George, Chestnut Hill.
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Others to be appointed by the Executive Committee.

MEMBERS AND OFFICERS OF STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

ARIZONA. BOARD OF CONTROL. Capitol, Phoenix. Established, 1894. Gov. Jos. H. Kibbey, President, Phoenix; James J. Riggs, Secretary, Phoenix; Auditor of State, John H. Page, ex officio, Phoenix.

CALIFORNIA. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. 1025 The Merchants' Exchange, San Francisco. Established 1903. James N. Gillett, Governor, Sacramento; W. C. Patterson, Los Angeles; Andrew M. Davis, San Francisco; Chas. A. Ramm, D.D., San Francisco; E. C. Moore, Los Angeles; O. K. Cushing, President, San Francisco; J. K. McLean, D. D., Vice President, Berkeley; W. A. Gates, Secretary, San Francisco.

COLORADO. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. Capitol, Denver. Established 1891. Gov. Henry A. Buchtel, ex officio, Denver; Dr. D. H. Dougan, Denver; Rev. Thomas H. Malone, Denver; Judge William Thomas, Breckenridge; Mrs. James Williams, Denver; Rev. Dr. Wm. S. Friedman, President, Denver; Mrs. Stanley M. Caspar, Vice President, Denver; Clarence E. Hagar, Secretary, Denver.

CONNECTICUT. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES. Capitol, Hartford. Established 1873. Edwin A. Down, M. D., Hartford; Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, New Haven; Mrs. Frank A. Mitchell, Norwich; J. B. Holman, Saybrook; Thomas F. Kane, Pres't, Hartford; Charles P. Kellogg, Sec., Waterbury.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. BOARD OF CHARITIES. 464 Louisiana avenue. Established 1900. Myer Cohen, Washington; George M. Lightfoot, Washington; Geo. M. Kober, Washington; John Joy Edson, President, Washington; Charles P. Neill, V. President, Washington; Geo. S. Wilson, Sec.

GEORGIA. THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA. Atlanta. Established 1897. Clement A. Evans, Atlanta; Thomas Eason, McRae; Joseph S. Turner, Chairman, Eatonton; Jacob C. Moore, Warden, Rome; Goodloe Yancey, Sec.

ILLINOIS. THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES. State House, Springfield. Established 1869. Mrs. Clara P. Bourland, Peoria; Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, 3612 Grand Blvd, Chicago; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Rockford; John T. McAnally, Carbondale; Frank Billings, M. D., President, 100 State street, Chicago; William C. Graves, Sec., Springfield.

INDIANA. BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES. State House, Indianapolis. Established 1889. Timothy Nicholson, Richmond; Sarah Stockton, M. D., Indianapolis; William P. Cooper, Ft. Wayne; Mrs. Carrie Goodwin Rexford, Indianapolis; Demarchus C. Brown, Irvington; Sydney B. Davis, Terre Haute; Gov. J. Frank Hanly, ex officio, President, Indianapolis; Amos W. Butler, Secretary, Indianapolis.

IOWA. BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS. Capitol, Des Moines. Established 1898. John Cownie, South Amana; G. S. Robinson, Sioux City; J. T. Hamilton, Chairman, Des Moines; F. S. Treat, Secretary, Des Moines.

KANSAS. BOARD OF CONTROL OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS. Topeka. Established 1905. Harry C. Bowman, Newton; Edgar B. Schermerhorn, Chairman, Galena; Sherman G. Elliott, Treasurer, Lawrence; F. W. Knapp, Secretary, Topeka.

LOUISIANA. STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. New Orleans. Established 1904. T. P. Thompson, New Orleans; E. B. Herndon, Shreveport; R. McG. Carruth, M. D., New Roads; Gov. Newton C. Blanchard, ex

officio, President, Baton Rouge; Michel Heymann, Vice President, New Orleans; P. M. Westfeldt, Secretary, New Orleans.

MARYLAND. Board of State Aid and Charities. Baltimore. Established 1900. A. Webster Smith, John S. Gittings, Garrett Foxwell, David Hutzler, Herbert G. Crisp, Harry M. Benzinger; Ferdinand C. Latrobe, President; James R. Brewer, Secretary.

MARYLAND. The Lunacy Commission. Baltimore. Established 1886. Stewart Paton, M. D., Baltimore; I. E. Atkinson, M. D., Baltimore; Charles W. Wainwright, M. D., Princess Anne: the Attorney-General, ex officio, Thomas S. Latimer, M. D., President; George J. Preston, M. D., Secretary.

MASSACHUSETTS. State Board of Charity. State House, Boston. Established 1879. Law amended 1886 and 1898. Leontine Lincoln, Chairman, Fall River; Laban Pratt, Vice President, Boston; Miss Francis G. Curtis, Boston; Charles H. Adams, Melrose; Charles R. Johnson, Worcester; David F. Tilley, Boston; Abraham C. Ratchesky, Boston; Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston; Thomas Downey, Boston; Joshua F. Lewis, M. D., Superintendent of State Adult Poor, Boston; James E. Fee, Superintendent of State Minor Wards, Boston; John D. Wells, Clerk and Auditor of Bd.

MASSACHUSETTS. State Board of Insanity. State House, Boston. Established 1898. James B. Ayer, M. D., Boston; Michael J. O'Meara, M. D., Worcester; Henry P. Field, Northampton; William F. Whittemore, Boston; Geo. F. Jelly, M. D., Chairman, Boston; Owen Copp, M. D., Sec.

MASSACHUSET S. The Board of Prison Commissioners. Boston. Established 1898. Henry Parkman, Boston; Arthur H. Wellman, Malden; Mrs. Margaret P. Russell, Boston; Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, Boston; Frederick G. Pettigrove, Chairman, Boston; J. Warren Bailey, Secretary, Boston.

MICHIGAN. Board of Corrections and Charities. Lansing. Established 1871. Fred M. Warner, Governor, ex officio; Dayton Parker, M. D., Detroit; George Clapperton, Grand Rapids; Henry P. Mowry, M. D., Chairman, Bronson; Charles Lewis, Jackson; L. C. Storrs, Secretary, Lansing.

MINNESOTA. Board of Control of State Institutions. St. Paul. Established 1901. L. A. Rosing, Cannon Falls; P. M. Ringdal, Crookston; Silas W. Leavett, Chairman, Litchfield; J. D. Mills, Secretary, St. Paul; M. C. Cutter, Purchasing Agent, St. Paul.

MISSOURI. State Board of Charities and Corrections. Jefferson City. Established 1897. Mrs. Gennie L. Rudd, Jefferson City; R. M. Abercrombie, St. Joseph; Rev. James N. Crutcher, Higginsville; James R. Moorehead, Lexington; David W. Reese, West Plains; Gov. Joseph W. Folk, President, Jefferson City; Miss Mary E. Perry, Vice President, St. Louis; Frank Bowman, Secretary, Jefferson City.

NEBRASKA. Board of Public Lands and Buildings. Lincoln. Established 1877. W. T. Thompson, Lincoln; L. J. Brian, Lincoln; Henry M. Eaton, President, Lincoln; Geo. C. Junkin, Secretary, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. State Board of Charities and Correction. Established 1895. James F. Brennan, Peterboro; Mrs. Ella L. Follansby, Exeter; Oliver J. M. Gilman, Alton; Sherman E. Burroughs, Manchester; Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, Chairman, Concord; W. J. Ahern, Secretary, Concord.

NEW JERSEY. State Board of Children's Guardians. Jersey City. Established 1899. Rev. J. R. Atkinson, Elizabeth; Joseph McCrystal, Paterson; Frederick G. Burnham, Morristown; Katherine E. Abbey, Mount Holly; Hugh F. Fox, President, Plainfield; Anthony T. Williams, Secretary, Trenton; Emily E. Williamson, Treasurer, Elizabeth.

NEW YORK. State Board of Charities. Albany. Established 1867. Law amended 1896. Annie G. de Peyster, New York; Thomas M. Mulry, New York; Augustus Floyd, Mastic; Joseph C. Baldwin, Jr., Mount Kisco; Simon W. Rosendale, Albany; Ledyard P. Hale, Canton; Dennis McCarthy, Syracuse; Ralph W. Thomas, Hamilton; Enoch V. Stoddard, M. D., Roch-

ester; William H. Gratwick, Buffalo; Wm. R. Stewart, *President, New York; Stephen Smith, M. D., Vice President, New York; Robert W. Hill, Secretary, Albany; Richard W. Wallace, Supt. of Inspection, Albany.

NEW YORK. State Commission of Lunacy. Albany. Established 1889. Sheldon T. Viele, Buffalo; William L. Parkhurst, Canandaigua; Wm. L. Russell, M. D., Medical Inspector, Poughkeepsie; T. E. McGarr, Secretary, Albany; George D. Sanford, Albany, Auditor.

NEW YORK. State Commission of Prisons. Albany. Established 1895. Law amended 1901. Francis C. Huntington, New York; Roger P. Clark, Binghampton; Sarah L. Davenport, Bath; Charles F. Howard, M. D., President, Buffalo; Thomas W. Hynes, Vice President, Brooklyn; George McLaughlin, Secretary, Albany.

NORTH CAROLINA. Board of Public Charities. Raleigh. Established 1869, reorganized 1889. E. L. Haughton, Pollocksville; W. F. Craig, Marion; A. C. McAllister, Asheboro; Carey J. Hunter, Raleigh; W. A. Blair, Chairman, Winston-Salem; Miss Daisy Denson, Secretary, Raleigh.

OHIO. Board of State Charities. Columbus. Established 1867. Law amended 1906. Rutherford Hayes Platt, Columbus; Jesse N. Oren, Wilmington; Rufus C. Burton, Zanesville; H. H. McFadden, Steubenville; Joseph F. Neave, Cincinnati; Andrew L. Harris, Governor, President, ex officio, Columbus; Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Chairman, Mansfield; H. H. Shirer, Secretary, Columbus.

PENNSYLVANIA. Board of Public Charities. Philadelphia. Established 1869. William T. Bell, Mt. Union; Cyrus B. King, Allegheny; George W. Ryon, Shamokin; Isaac Johnson, Media; Patrick C. Boyle, Oil City; Ralph Blum, Philadelphia; Samuel E. Gill, Pittsburg; Howard B. French, Philadelphia; Edward K. Rowland, Philadelphia; Francis J. Torrance, President, Allegheny; Bromley Wharton, Secretary, Philadelphia. *Committee on Lunacy.* George W. Ryon, Shamokin; Patrick C. Boyle, Oil City; Edward K. Rowland, Philadelphia; Cyrus B. King, M. D., Allegheny; Isaac Johnson, Chairman, Media; J. Nicholas Mitchell, M. D., Secretary.

RHODE ISLAND. Board of State Charities and Corrections. Providence. Established 1869. Walter A. Read, Glocester; Philippe Boucher, Woonsocket; Robert F. Rodman, N. Kingstown; Wm. P. Cross, Providence; John J. Watson, Jr., Jamestown; George R. Lawton, Tiverton; Harry H. Shepard, Bristol; Horace F. Horton, Cranston; James F. McCusker, Chairman, Warwick; James R. Read, Secretary, Providence.

SOUTH DAKOTA. State Board of Charities and Corrections. Mitchell. Established 1890. Wm. M. Powers, Yankton; D. C. Thomas, President, Watertown; W. E. Tipton, Secretary, Mitchell.

TENNESSEE. Board of State Charities. Nashville. Established 1895. James Maynard, Knoxville; W. R. Cole, Nashville; Gov. M. R. Patterson, Memphis; Rev. J. R. Larkin, Memphis; Judge S. W. Hawkins, Huntingdon; Rev. J. W. Bachman, D. D., President, Chattanooga; James A. Orman, Secretary, Nashville; E. P. Anderson, Assistant Secretary, Nashville.

WASHINGTON. State Board of Control. Olympia. Established 1901. J. H. Davis; Matt L. Piles; H. T. Jones, Chairman; C. C. Aspinwall, Sec.

WISCONSIN. State Board of Control. Madison. Established 1891. L. B. Dresser, St. Croix Falls; Dr. Almah J. Frisby, Milwaukee; Elmer Grimmer, Marinette; H. Grotophorst, President, Baraboo; Allan D. Conover, Vice President, Madison; M. J. Tappins, Secretary, Madison.

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*Mr. Stewart's name was accidentally omitted from the list published in the volume of 1906. He has been a member of the board continuously for more than twenty-five years.—Editor.

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INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Abbreviations used in this index:

Names of states the usual P. O abbreviations.

A. C.	Associated charities.	Def.	Defective,–s,–ness.	Off.	Officer.
A. I. C. P.	Association for Improving Condition of Poor.	Del.	Delinquent,–cy.	Orp.	Orphan,–s.
		Dep.	Dependent,–cy.	Org.	Organized,–ation,–s.
Adm.	Administration, tive.	Dev.	Development.		
Assn.	Association.	Dept.	Department.	Phys.	Physical.
		Est.	Established,–ment.	Plcg.	Placing.
Bd.	Board.	Epi.	Epileptic,–s,–sy.	Pri.	Private.
Bl.	Blind.	Emp.	Employment.	Pt.	Point.
Bldg.	Building.	F. M.	Feeble-Minded.	Pub.	Public.
		F. V.	Friendly Visitor.	Prob.	Probation.
Ch.	Child 's, children.			Prohi.	Prohibition.
Chh.	Church,–'s,–es.	H.	House.		
Chgd.	Changed.	Ho.	Home.	Ref.	Refuge, reformatory.
Char.	Charity,–ies,–able.	Hosp.	Hospital.	Rel.	Relief.
Col.	Colony,–ies.			*Re.*	Concerning.
Com.	Committee, Commission.	Imp.	Improved,–ment.	R. R.	Railroad.
		Ind.	Industrial.	Sch.	School.
Comr.	Commissioner.	Ins.	Insane.	Soc.	Society.
Conf.	Conference,–s.	Inst.	Institution,–s,–al.	St.	State.
Cond.	Condition,–s.			Spec.	Special.
Cont.	Control.	Juv.	Juvenile.	Statis.	Statistical.
Cor.	Correction,–s,–al.				
C. O. S.	Charity Organization Society.	Lab.	Labor,–er,–s.	T. B.	Tuberculosis.
Ct.	Court.	Nat.	National.	W.	West.
		No.	Number,–s.	Wk.	Work.
				Wkg.	Working.

Words in SMALL CAPITALS signify COMMITTEES: phrases in *italics* signify *titles of papers*; author's name follows title.

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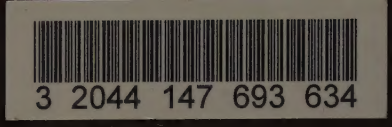
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